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ON INDEX NUMBERS

THE public has gradually become accustomed to the use of index numbers as a means of measuring some change that is being investigated, and appeals are now made with some frequency to them as evidence in questions which have come within the range of politics. It may, therefore, not be amiss to address a few words of exposition and caution to those who are inclined, without enquiry, to rely upon their sufficiency and reliability. When we have to compare a series of figures, especially large figures, over a period of time it is a very great simplification to express the series in terms of percentages of the amounts taken at some standard time. Thus, if we wish to compare the output of coal in the United Kingdom over the last thirty years, or the movement in the prices of No. 3 G.M.B. Cleveland pig-iron over the same period, or the earnings of cotton spinners, it is much easier to compare the annual amounts produced, or the average annual prices or rates of earnings, when we take them as percentages of the output or the price or the rate, respectively, for a standard period. The chief thing to be considered here is that if our figures are going to be something more than a mere *memoria technica*, we must calculate them as percentages of a "normal" year or of a period long enough to average out the ordinary fluctuations of trade; in the case of the iron trade that would mean about a ten-year period.

More useful, but at the same time involving more complicated problems, is the application of index numbers to complex groups of commodities not otherwise related than through their common relation to money—that is, when we seek by this method to measure the purchasing power of money over a period of time. In this class we have the well-known Board of Trade index number of wholesale prices, Sauerbeck's (now published by the *Statist*) and the *Economist* index numbers, the Board of Trade retail price index number for London, and general index numbers of wages and unemployment. There are a large number of ways in which index numbers of this class may be calculated—Professor Irving Fisher has examined some fifty of them. In its simplest form the percentage changes of price of each article in the group are calculated with reference to the price of that article in the standard year or period; for each year the percentages are added up and the total is divided by the number of articles in the group; the result then gives the index number for the year compared with the standard year or period taken as 100. Here the chief difficulty lies in the selection of articles appropriate to the purpose in view, since in every case it is practically impossible to include all the relative articles. The *Economist* index number is based on the prices of 46 commodities, and Sauerbeck's and the Board of Trade number on 45. The relative importance of the selected articles is indicated, in the case of the two former numbers, by inclusion of several quotations of the more important goods and by single quotations of the others, virtually by an indirect system of "weighting," and the price fluctuations are based on market prices taken at intervals throughout the year. The Board of Trade number is based mainly upon the import and export prices of the selected food-stuffs and raw materials, and each article is "weighted" by a multiple expressing the relative importance of that article in the national consumption (including export under consumption). The details of the calculations are contained in the Report on Wholesale and Retail Prices in the United Kingdom in 1902 (H.C. 321 of 1903), and the principles are discussed in Appendix II. to that volume. As it relies not on a personal valuation of the relative importance of articles in the market, but on a statistical examination of their importance in consumption, the Board of Trade method appears the superior. The base year chosen for purposes of comparison was first 1871 and afterwards 1900, and on the whole it would be better if a ten-year period were taken, though not one so relatively remote as the 1867-77 decade, which forms the Sauerbeck basis. Further, whatever system be adopted, it is imperative that an index number of wholesale prices should be reviewed at frequent intervals, both as regards the selection of commodities and, more particularly, as regards weights. To quote the Board of Trade Report, "a period of rapid economic change would demand a frequent revision of the weighting."

When we seek to measure retail prices we are confronted with the difficulty that there are not one, but a thousand markets. A wholesale price index number may at the worst serve as a rough barometer of the course of trade, provided that it is based on a wide enough selection of articles; but retail prices vary not only in time, but also according to locality and according to the social position of the purchaser. No retail price index number can ever be valid except under very limited conditions, and when properly limited a large number of such index numbers may be valid at the same time. The best-known retail price index number is the one compiled by the Board of Trade for food prices in London; and while other compilations by Mrs. Frances Wood and Prof. Bowley show some not unimportant differences, they do not in any way discredit the official figures. This index number well exemplifies the difficulties of dealing with retail prices, for in calculating it "allowance has been made for the varying importance of the different articles taken, by weighting their prices according to the average working-class consumption of each, as estimated from a number of family budgets collected by the Board of Trade in 1904." Now, every student knows that it is not the average housewife who can supply the material for a "budget," and, in fact, while out of the 1,944 budgets collected 261 were from families with less than 25s. a week, 596 were from families with incomes of 40s. and over. A different index number could be compiled for each wage-class, and different groups of wage-earners would then be seen to be affected in different

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degrees by changes in prices. In the Report on the Cost of Living for 1912 (Cd. 6955) index numbers are given showing the course of retail prices of food in the provincial towns in the United Kingdom, but when we come to compare these with the similar figures for London we find that twelve of the London commodities have had to be left out of account. This is a class of difficulty which always arises when attempts are made to compare prices and the cost of living in different localities in the same country, and still more prices and the cost of living in different countries. One point more: although weighting on the evidence of budgets is never quite satisfactory, it is the best evidence we have, and therefore it would be desirable to collect large numbers of budgets frequently—at least every ten years—in order to ascertain any change in the standard of living, which, of course, would at once affect the weighting.

During the recent boom in trade there was not a little abuse of the Board of Trade for concealing the fact that part of the apparent rise was due to increased prices, the assailants being blissfully unaware that the Board publish an annual return (of which the last is Cd. 6782) showing the estimated value of the imports and exports of the United Kingdom for a series of years at the prices prevailing in 1900. It is mentioned here chiefly because this return is stated to have been prepared on account of the inapplicability of the wholesale price index number, based on a restricted number of commodities, to imports and exports which consist, the former mainly of raw materials and food, and the latter mainly of manufactured goods and coal. "It cannot be assumed," says the Board, "that our imports and exports are subject to equal fluctuations in prices, or that the change in their average values corresponds to that of all commodities consumed in this country. On the contrary, it will be seen that their changes in the level of average values often differ widely." Once again we see that in constructing index numbers the special purpose must always be kept in view. Secondly, this return is mentioned because of the improvement effected two years ago by the introduction of the "step by step" method, by which the figures for each year are recalculated on the basis of the prices of the previous year, and are then referred to the base year 1900, instead of being directly calculated on the basis of 1900 prices. The old method necessitated adherence to the classification of commodities in force in 1900, while the new method has enabled the Department to make use of all the additional detail and improvement in classification introduced since that date.

FERTILITY OF MARRIAGE IN SCOTLAND

Census of Scotland, 1911. Vol. III. Cd. 7163. 2s. 11d.

This, the final volume of the Report on the twelfth Census of Scotland, deals with the occupations of persons enumerated in Scotland, but born in England and Wales and Ireland; the nationalities, ages, and occupations of foreigners, colonials, and naturalised British subjects, enumerated in Scotland; the numbers, distribution, birthplaces, and occupations of the infirm; special statistics regarding the inmates of institutions; and the statistics of the fertility of marriage. Of these subjects, the occupations of persons born in England, Wales, and Ireland, the birthplaces of the infirm, and the fertility of marriage are new. There were 165,102 persons of English or Welsh birth and 174,715 of Irish, 24,739 foreigners, 17,890 colonials, and 1,798 naturalised British subjects, but the detailed analysis of their occupations is not of sufficient importance to detain us here. The statistics of the infirm are, owing to differences in definition, not strictly comparable with those for 1901. Interesting tables are given as to the relative frequency of infirmities in different age-groups, but, unfortunately, there is no evidence to throw light on the much-discussed question of the alleged greater incidence of some forms of infirmity on the elder members of families. Further, "the census records dealing with infirmities are not altogether reliable, but are, without doubt, loaded with considerable error." The occupations, or former occupations, of the infirm and of inmates of poorhouses, prisons, and common lodging-houses are separately compiled and published "more for reasons of continuity with previous census reports than for any reasons of inherent administrative importance or specific interest"; they might well have been omitted, to the saving of expense and nineteen pages of tables.

The 27 pages of report and 188 pages of tables summarising the statistics of the fertility of marriage give us for the first time an official record, and are of great interest. There were 762,835 married women in Scotland in 1911, but after deducting those cases where the husband was absent on the census day, those cases where the wife was over 45 at the date of marriage, and a few unreliable cases, there were left 680,684 marriages to be studied. The tables analyse all these marriages according to the ages of the husband and wife at marriage, the duration of marriage, and the number of children born alive. There were 239,943 marriages which continued till the end of the woman's child-bearing period of life (which, for the purposes of the study, is taken to be 45), and of these 27,478, or 11·5 per cent., were childless. The rate of childlessness increases with the age of the wife at marriage, from 4 per cent. for wives married at 22 or under to 13 per cent. for those married at 30, to 57 per cent. for those married at 40, and over 80 per cent. for those married at 43. Out of 1,000 marriages of women aged between 20 and 25, a first child is born during the first year of marriage in 267 cases; during the second year in 366; during the third year in 208; during the fourth year in 53; and in subsequent years in 53. The chance of a woman who married between those ages having at least one child is 0·95, certainty being represented by 1. How fertility is affected by the age of the wife is shown by a table in which is tabulated the probability of fertility in marriages which have for three years been sterile. Out of every 100 such marriages where the wife was 20 to 24 years old at the time of marriage, 4·49 will be childless at the end of the period of possible fertility; where the wife was married at 25 to 29, 8·52; at 30 to 34, 15·87; and at 35 to 39, 33·70. Other tables show the chance of there being one, two, or more children, and of there being not more than one, two, etc., children. "Provided the marriage continues to the end of the fertile period of a woman's life, there is a level chance of a young woman marrying at 17 being the mother of at least 10 children . . . this chance in the case of a woman marrying at 20 is that she will be the mother of at least 9 children; for age of wife 25, at least 6 children; for age of wife 30, at least 4 children; for age of wife 35, at least 2 children; and for age of wife 40, at least one child."

The effect of postponement of marriage for one year is in the case of women aged 20 to 24 that 45 fewer children are born to every 100 marriages, and in the case of men 32 children to each 100 marriages, but "the effect of each year's delay of marriage in the case of both men and women is a diminishing quantity as the age advances." There has been a continuous drop in the fertility of marriage in the last fifty years. The tables and an instructive chart show that "marriages of women aged 20, and taking place in 1864 or previous years, resulted in complete families averaging 8·48 children, and that the average has steadily declined. It is 8·42 for marriages of the years 1865 to 1869; 8·04 for those of the years 1870 to 1874; 7·88 for those of the years 1875 to 1879; 7·59 for the years 1880 to 1884; and 7·39 for the years 1885 and 1886—no corresponding figures being available for marriages of subsequent years because the completion of the fertile period had not been reached at the date of the census." The figures for marriages at other ages show a similar decline over the period covered by the statistics, the decline averaging 128 children per 100 marriages, where the wives were aged 20 to 24 at marriage, 168 for ages 25 to 29, 156 for ages 30 to 34, and 164 for ages 35 to 39. As the report remarks, the census information throws no light on the causes of this decreased fertility, and they are not discussed. It will probably not be an error, however, to attribute the fall mainly to deliberate limitation of the family, and not to any real decline in the capacity to bear children.

For the purpose of studying the effects of occupation on fertility, comparable groups of marriages were taken where the wife was over 22 and under 27 at the time of marriage, and the marriage had continued for at least 15 years; the results are accepted as "reasonably reliable." The figures give a precise measure for the common observation that the professional and allied classes and the commercial and shop-keeping classes are all of low fertility, while agriculturists, miners, and labourers are of high fertility. This again points to deliberate limitation.

Another study was made of 5,458 marriages where the wives were engaged in remunerative occupations as compared with a random sample of 5,458 similar marriages with unoccupied wives. Of the children born of unoccupied mothers 14·8 per cent. had died before the census date, and of the children born of occupied mothers 24 per cent., figures which show a distinct causation between occupation of the mother and child mortality. Figures are given separately for groups of industries, but the samples are generally not large enough to give satisfactory results.

With the help of Dr. Tocher, Lecturer on Statistics, and Mr. Rae, Professor of Mathematics, both of Aberdeen University, an attempt was made to construct tables to show the probable fertility of marriage. The mathematical difficulties were found to be "unexpectedly great," and further examination and calculation will probably be necessary. As might be anticipated, "the age of the wife at marriage exercises a preponderating effect on the size of the family," while the age of the husband has a very much smaller effect; there is also "a strong bias in men and women towards securing mates of the same age as themselves." The table of predictions for completed fertilities shows quite a remarkable correspondence with the table of observed fertilities, except in those cases where there is a very wide difference between the ages of husband and wife. Such cases "for certain reasons are somewhat abnormal, and a higher fertility might therefore reasonably be expected"; the numbers of marriages in the extreme groups are also too small to give satisfactory results from mathematical analysis. To have produced a table, however, which holds good with a relatively small range of error for normal marriages is, indeed, a triumph. Even more difficult was the problem of dealing with continuing fertilities—*i.e.*, the answering of such a question as: "A man of 28 marries a woman of 26; what is the average number of children to be expected when the marriage has lasted four complete years?" This problem has also been tackled with a fair amount of success, and a formula has been discovered to provide a solution, but it "does not give quite so satisfactory results as the corresponding one for the completed fertilities" as certain refinements of calculation had to be omitted on account of the enormous amount of work necessary. Still, as the "predicted" answer to the foregoing question is 1·44 and the "observed" average number of children born to such a marriage is 1·65, the table may be taken as a reasonable first attempt at a forecast for normal marriages.

The reader will find it interesting to study a paper on "The Fertility of Marriage in Scotland," read before the Royal Statistical Society on January 20th, 1914, by Dr. Dunlop, the Superintendent of the Statistical Department in the Office of the Registrar-General for Scotland. Here an interesting comparison is made between the figures for Scotland and those for New South Wales, given by Mr. T. A. Coghlan in his essay on "The Decline of the Birth-rate." From this it appears that the decline of fertility has been greater in New South Wales than in Scotland and that the proportion of sterile marriages is greater. It will also be useful to refer to the paper on "The Decline of Human Fertility in the United Kingdom and other Countries," by Drs. Newsholme and Stevenson (*Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, Vol. LXIX., 1907). We shall look forward with impatient interest to the publication of the census figures for fertility for England and Wales, to see whether they confirm or differ from the results for Scotland. Being based on a much larger population, they will necessarily be more important.

STANDARD RATES OF WAGES

Standard Time Rates of Wages in the United Kingdom at October 1st, 1913. Cd. 7194. 6½d.

This is the seventh edition of the Board of Trade's well-known volume on standard rates of wages. The writer of the introduction rather curiously omits to refer to the previous editions, and no list of them appears to be included anywhere in the volume. (The date for which rates were given in the last volume was, as a matter of fact, January 1st, 1912, while the fifth edition related to conditions prevailing on October 1st, 1910.) The introduction of three pages has been expanded somewhat since the last edition, and contains some useful hints on the variations in the character of standard rates in different industries. The minimum wage scale approved by the Congress of the Co-operative Union is included for the first time. It has been accepted wholly by 200 Co-operative Societies employing nearly 17,000 work-people, and as regards either males or females by 120 societies for over 4,000 of their employees. The minimum rates fixed by the Trade Boards also now secure recognition in the volume alongside of the Trade Union standard rates.

Perhaps the most striking feature in the volume is the enormous variations in the standard rates from district to district, much of which cannot be attributed to any generally recognisable economic force. The cost of living is clearly one determining factor. The size of towns, or size of the industry in them, apart from the cost of living in them, appears to exercise some influence. There may be something in Dr. Marshall's idea that local variations in standard rates tend to sort out men according to their quality. It must also be remembered that in many trades the class of work differs as between certain areas taken as a whole, and that, for instance, the engineer who makes laundry machinery in Keighley is a different man from the engineer who does gun-work in Sheffield. But all these considerations taken together do not serve to explain the phenomena wholly. As an illustration of the variations in standard rates within a relatively small area the following table showing the rates for various trades in certain Yorkshire towns is extracted from the report, while the index number for the cost of living (rents plus retail prices) in October, 1912, as compared with London, is also given:

Town.	Cost of Living.	Standard Rates.				
		Carpenters, per hour.	Compositors (jobbing), per week.	Millwrights, per week.	Ironfounders, per week.	Policemen (minimum), per week.
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Huddersfield ...	92	0 9	32 0	36 0	40 0	27 0
Bradford	90	0 9	34 0	36 0	40 0	26 0
Normanton ...	90	0 7½	—	36 0	—	26 10
York	90	0 8½	32 0	33 0	30 0	27 0
Keighley	89	0 8½	30 0	32 0	35 0	26 10
Halifax	88	0 8¾	32 6	35 0	39 0	27 0
Castleford	87	0 8	—	—	—	26 10
Hull	87	0 9½	33 0	36 0	0 9 per hr.	27 0
Leeds	87	0 9½	35 6	36 0	41 0	27 0
Sheffield	87	0 9¼	35 0	39 0	42 0	27 0

The particulars with regard to gas workers in the present volume are very striking. There is an appreciable minority of towns where the barbarous twelve-hour day for gas stokers still prevails. It is noteworthy that several of these towns pay no more for a twelve-hour day than the average paid by other towns for an eight-hour day. For instance, Stalybridge pays the same for twelve hours as Salford pays for eight. Where more is paid for a twelve-hour day the difference is not nearly half as much again as the ordinary wage for eight hours' work. Again, while many towns pay time and a half or double time for Sunday work, others, like Liverpool, pay nothing extra for Sunday work and are not characterised by a particularly generous rate for week-day work.

It would be interesting and valuable if the Board of

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Trade would increase the amount of information with regard to the rates of wages paid to various classes of public employees and public utility workers. The *Municipal Year Book* contains a very useful table showing the rates paid for many classes of workers by a number of corporations, and it ought not to be very difficult for the Board of Trade to elaborate this table still further. It is curious that the Board has not seen fit to include particulars with regard to wages in the Postal Service, either in the Wages and Hours Enquiry of 1906 or in its Standard Rates reports. We have no clear and comprehensive statement of wages in the Postal Service—the presentation of statistics in the Holt Report was hopelessly unscientific and amateurish. It ought not to be more difficult to give details with regard to postmen, postal clerks, scavengers, and tramwaymen than with regard to policemen. And surely it would be as useful to include particulars with regard to elementary and secondary school teachers as with regard to marine engineers.

TEACHING AND INSPECTION IN IRISH EDUCATION

Viceregal Committee of Inquiry into Primary Education (Ireland) 1913. Final Report. Cd. 7235. 5½d. Appendix to Second Report. Cd. 7229. 4s. 8d.

Rules and Regulations of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, 1913–14. H.M. Stationery Office. 4d.

In the last issue of the Blue Book Supplement (January 24th) attention was drawn to the deficiencies of the Irish Elementary Education Inspectorate as revealed in its annual report (Cd. 7061). We are now confronted with a thorough review of the whole organisation of both inspection and of the teaching staff by a committee presided over by Sir Samuel Dill. It is satisfactory to find that, whatever may be the deficiencies of the Irish educational system, it is nevertheless possible to secure that it shall be subjected to an unflinching and thorough analysis by a body of Irishmen who are capable of laying down new lines of policy at once bold and yet, as far as one can judge, not inconsistent with the extraordinarily complex circumstances of the situation. Sir Samuel Dill and his colleagues have produced a document which should be something of a classic in the literature of educational administration. It has attracted little attention in this country, where scarcely anyone is conversant in the slightest degree with the tangled threads of Irish administrative problems. But it is nevertheless well worthy of study, not only for the sake of the particular problems with which it deals, but as an example of the application of ripe wisdom in the sphere of bureaucratic organisation.

The report begins with a lucid sketch of the development of the organisation of teaching and of the inspectorate. The classification of teachers began in 1839, when three classes were established. By 1868 there were seven different classes of teachers. The Powys Commission of 1868-70 found that only 33·5 per cent. of the children attended school upwards of 100 days in the year. The standard of efficiency in teaching was appallingly low. The Commission was caught by the wave of enthusiasm for the examination system which dominated mid-Victorian England. It decided to apply a practical stimulus to efficiency in the teachers by introducing a system of payment by results, as supplemental to the payment by class salaries. The number of classes was once more reduced to three, into which teachers were sorted partly by an examination and partly by promotion on a good service record. Their salaries depended partly on the class in which they stood and partly on the number of children in respect of whom they could obtain a fixed sum from the National Board for a pass in an examination in a number of subjects counted separately. This system prevailed from 1872 to 1900; and it should not be forgotten, in the present age of perhaps excessive reaction against examinations, that it did secure in Ireland, as in England, the establishment of a certain standard of achievement, however mechanical, after a period of utter chaos and inefficiency. In the middle of the 'nineties the influence of the manual instruction movement made itself felt in Ireland. As the result of representations from the leading members of the Board of National Commissioners of that day, the Lord-Lieutenant appointed a Viceregal Commission in 1897 to enquire into the application of manual instruction to Irish education. The Commission recommended a more thorough cultivation of Kindergarten methods, manual instruction, drawing, elementary science, cookery and laundry work, singing, drill and needlework. It further proposed that class examination and inspection of the teaching should take the place of individual examination in the subjects of manual and practical instruction. In 1899 a new resident commissioner, Dr. Starkie, was appointed, and in the following year the whole system of Irish education was recast by the introduction of changes amounting to an administrative revolution. "The most fundamental change was a new grading of teachers, with salaries of a fixed minimum and maximum for each grade, the maximum to be reached by triennial increments awarded according to the reports of the inspectors. For the purpose of this award a scale of merit marks, six in number, was established. . . . The character of the merit mark for a series of years determined the teacher's chance of obtaining his increment, and also, along with other considerations, his promotion to a higher grade. Under the former system the teacher had a fixed salary, which was increased by fluctuating payments on the results of the individual examination and by a capitation grant. Under the new system his whole grade income was secure, so long as he was efficient, but any increase of it and any rise in grade depended on the numbers of his school. A third-grade teacher could not by any good reports rise to the second grade unless he had 30 pupils. A man in the second grade could not obtain promotion to the second division of the first grade unless the average numbers of his school were 50."

A very little reflection will serve to show the great difficulties of operating this system. The 14,000 Irish teachers are appointed to individual schools by the managers, and may be dismissed by them, subject in each case to the controlling power of the Board. But as civil servants, dependent for their salaries upon the Board, they are, for the most part, so many helpless units, able to strike back after an unjust blow only by the exercise, on behalf of individuals, of political pressure of a kind which is detrimental to the best interests of the State. Their salaries are far inferior to those of English bank clerks. The men in the third grade can only rise from the minimum of £63 to the maximum of £84 after nine years' service. The happy few in the first division of the first grade only receive £149, rising after nine years to £185. The women's salaries range from £51 to a maximum of £151 (again attainable only by a very small minority). The triennial increments range from £7 to £12. The arbitrary judgment of the inspectorate, as recorded in the "merit marks," can deprive the teachers not merely of promotion to a higher grade, but even of their increments, which, small as they are, may sometimes amount to one-eighth of the whole salary. Deprivation of a single increment means a permanent set-back (involving an eventual loss probably exceeding a whole year's salary), not merely a fine of a few pounds for two or three years. The loss of promotion is even more serious. Moreover, since the National Commissioners receive only a fixed sum from the Treasury, they have been compelled in some cases to have recourse to a system of "paper promotions," by which a teacher is granted the rank of a higher grade, but continues to receive the salary of a lower grade until the financial position of the Commissioners enables them to accord him his proper rate of salary.

Thus it would seem to have been almost inevitable that serious friction should arise between the teachers and the Commissioners under the new system. There was considerable difficulty, in the years directly following its introduction, over the question of the re-grading of the teachers, since the three new "grades" did not by any means neces-

sarily correspond with the three old "classes." Time did not serve to put an end to the friction. It broke out into open warfare in Belfast and in Tipperary in 1910 and 1911. The Belfast teachers experienced a continuous lowering of merit marks between 1907 and 1910. While the percentage of satisfactory marks in the whole of Ireland during these years rose by four, in Belfast it fell by more than four. In 1909 there was a change of inspectors in the Clonmel circuit. The new inspectors adopted a much higher standard than had been taken by the old. One of them (the junior inspector who was quoted in the last number of the BLUE BOOK SUPPLEMENT as stating that the teachers were "in general an honest, respectable body of citizens") reduced the marking of the schools in his charge by 78 per cent. The agitation arising out of these cases ultimately necessitated an investigation into the whole system. With regard to the disputes in Belfast and Clonmel, the Viceregal Committee decided that if teachers have been accustomed for a long period of years to a certain standard of marking, they were entitled to due and sufficient warning (such as was not given in this case) before changes of marking involving very considerable losses of increment were introduced. The report, however, amounts to a severe condemnation of the whole merit mark system. The Committee proves conclusively, in the first place, that the system is very largely based upon untenable assumptions. It is difficult enough to secure uniformity of judgment among examiners in an ordinary school or university examination of individual scholars. It is preposterous to suppose that anything like a tolerable measure of justice can be secured for fourteen thousand teachers on the basis of a yearly assignment of one of six merit marks by sixty inspectors, judging according to general impressions. The idiosyncrasies of the inspectors, the general variations in the standard of education in different counties, and the contrasts (as striking as any in Europe) between social conditions in different parts of the country, all tend to stultify the merit mark system. Moreover, the Committee decided that the behaviour of the inspectors to the teachers had, in some instances, been marked by a lack of common courtesy, which confirms only too clearly the impression of the general outlook of these officials conveyed by their annual report.

The Committee was limited, by its terms of reference, in the scope of the changes which it could recommend. The conclusions, which are implied in its report, would seem to warrant changes even more drastic than those which are suggested. But no doubt the conditions of Irish education (and particularly the absence of local education authorities) render it difficult to introduce far-reaching reforms. The most important of the long list of proposals are: (1) The alteration of the prevailing system of grading and promoting teachers so as to provide for more rapid promotion of able and promising teachers. (2) The abolition of the merit marks. (3) The substitution for triennial of annual increments, which are to be automatic in the absence of an adverse report. (4) Numerous reforms in the organisation of the inspectorate, such as the appointment of six (instead of two) chief or divisional inspectors; alteration in the manner of expressing reports (with regard to which a very interesting account is given of the methods of the French educational inspectorate); changes in the methods of appointment of inspectors; arrangements whereby individual inspectors shall remain longer in a particular district and have sole responsibility for reporting on the schools in it. (5) Improvements in the machinery for enabling teachers to appeal against an inspector's decision. (6) The promotion of teachers to be in the hands of the chief inspectors, whose selection, subject to approval of the Board, shall be final.

The evidence, of course, places some facts in a clearer light than is thrown even by this frank and thorough report. Attention may be drawn in particular to the cross-examination of Mr. Dale, the Chief Inspector of English Elementary Education, who drew up an important report on Irish education in 1903. Dr. Starkie describes in detail the history of the changes by which the existing system was established, and of the difficulties which arose in connection with its administration.

THE ROOKERIES OF DUBLIN

Report of the Departmental Committee appointed by the Local Government Board for Ireland to enquire into the Housing Conditions of the Working Classes in the City of Dublin. 1914. Cd. 7273. 1s. 1d.

Dublin furnishes a remarkable example of the way in which a large proportion of the working classes has fallen in the rear of civilisation. It is chiefly the recognition of this fact that has driven the articulate section of it into revolt. The vicious circle of bad houses and bad wages, bad wages and bad houses, once grasped, is sufficient to account for any outbreak, however violent. Two-thirds of the population of Dublin belong to the working classes; one-half of these (or a third of the whole population) are living in tenement houses, or in small houses, which are actually unfit for human habitation or are rapidly becoming so. The tenement houses are mostly houses built for a single family originally; as a whole they are very old and in a more or less advanced state of decay. About 27,000 people live in small houses of the "first class," houses structurally sound and, if not actually in good repair, still capable of being repaired. Then 38,000 people find shelter in small houses of the "second class," which, according to the report, are "on or fast approaching the border line of being unfit for human habitation"; whilst a further 23,000 are committed to houses of the "third class," houses unfit and incapable of being made fit for the habitation of human beings. In the tenement houses four-fifths of the occupants, numbering over 20,000 families, live, eat, sleep, and die in one-roomed dwellings, the state of overcrowding of which is worse than in any other city of the United Kingdom. In the case of 12,000 families there is an average of six persons per room! Conditions of life in these tenement houses are revolting. Though there are, of course, many exceptions, a large number are dilapidated. "Generally, the only water supply of the house is furnished by a single water tap, which is in the yard. The yard is common, and the closet accommodation is to be found there, except in some few cases in which there is no yard, when it is to be found in the basement, where there is little light or ventilation. The closet accommodation is common . . . not only to the occupants of the house, but to anyone who likes to come in off the street, and is, of course, common to both sexes. The roofs of these tenement houses are as a rule bad. . . . The passages, landings, and stairs are, in many cases, cramped and narrow, and the woodwork defective. The floors of the rooms are often out of repair, and the window frames and sashes in poor condition, those in the landing windows being not infrequently absent. . . . It is no uncommon thing to find halls and landings, yards and closets, of the houses in a filthy condition, and in nearly every case human excreta is to be found scattered about the yards and on the floors of the closets and in some cases even in the passages of the house itself." This condition of affairs naturally contributes to a high death-rate—higher, indeed, than in any other large centre of population in the British Isles. The small houses are little better than the tenements, for the committee state that "some of these structures scarcely deserve the name of house." Many are erected in narrow areas almost surrounded by high buildings or walls, with alleys or passages, which in some cases are scarcely more than nine or ten feet wide, as a means of approach. They suffer consequently, apart from their condition, from the added disadvantage of being deprived of light and air.

The earnings of the heads of families occupying tenement houses and small houses of the second and third classes are shown in the summarised figures given below.

Earnings of heads of families:	Percentages.
Not more than 15s. per week	26·4
Over 15s. and up to 20s.	42·4
Over 20s. and up to 25s.	12·2
Over 25s. and up to 30s.	7·7
Over 30s.	11·3

It will be observed that over four-fifths of these people receive 25s. or less per week, and that over two-thirds are on or below the pound a week line! The rents paid by the

occupants of tenement houses and second-class houses may be summarised as follows:

Rent per week:	Percentages.
From 1s. to 2s. per week	25·4
Over 2s. to 2s. 6d. per week	20·9
Over 2s. 6d. and under 3s. per week	2·8
3s. per week	17·2
Over 3s. and up to 4s. per week...	18·7
Over 4s. per week	15·1

Roughly speaking, about half pay less than 3s. a week, and half 3s. a week and more. We may state the fact, as the report does, without comment that "the rental of the tenement houses amounts to £191,509 10s., and the valuation to £82,595."

Under the Public Health and Housing of the Working Classes Acts the city of Dublin has certain powers with regard to housing, which powers were strengthened by a special act, the Dublin Corporation Act, 1890. It adopted bye-laws in 1880, which were superseded by new regulations in 1902, giving the Corporation considerable powers regarding the regulation of housing conditions. The Corporation has also provided 1,385 dwellings and lodging-house accommodation for about 7,600, or one in every forty of the population, and in this respect has done a good deal more than the vast majority of local authorities. Further schemes are being put into operation (to provide accommodation for over 2,000 persons), and other schemes are under consideration which would deal with the housing of 6,480 persons. So far so good, but the schemes adopted have been, in the opinion of the Committee, "incomplete and too scattered." Further, serious charges are made against the Corporation with regard to the administration of their bye-laws. The registration of tenements is very incomplete; the closing powers of the Corporation are not stringently applied. The rebate in taxes (amounting to 25 per cent.) made to owners of working-class dwellings satisfying certain requirements has been given in respect of property actually unfit for human habitation! Members of the Corporation are owners of tenements and small houses some of which are classed by the local sanitary staff as "third class," and yet receive rebates in taxes.

Into the details of the suggestions made by the Committee there is not space to enter. They consider that the minimum of new housing accommodation required is 14,000 houses or dwellings, to let at 3s. 7d. per week. The loss on such houses would, however, be equivalent to a rate of 1s. 5½d. in the pound. They suggest, therefore, that the principle of giving grants in aid for the provision of working-class dwellings recognised in the Labourers Acts should be extended to housing provision in Irish urban areas, in which case Dublin would find only about 6½d. in the pound added to its rates. Though it was suggested that a special housing authority should be established, the Committee wisely affirm the undesirability of taking the question out of the hands of the Corporation. The volume includes a number of photographs of the rookeries of Dublin.

THE IRISH MILK SUPPLY

Final Report of the Irish Milk Commission, 1911. Cd. 7129.
Appendix to the Final Report of the Irish Milk Commission, 1911. Cd. 7134.

This Commission was appointed to enquire, first, into the scarcity of milk in certain parts of Ireland and its effects, and, secondly, into the danger of contamination and infection in the present milk supply, and the methods of combating them. Its recommendations should constitute an important landmark in the history of Irish public health administration. The Commissioners found that in the large towns there was no scarcity of milk in the strict sense of the word—that is to say, the supply is always equal to the demand (at an average price of 3½d. a quart) so long as the money to pay for it is forthcoming. In the small towns there is, as a rule, no scarcity in the summer, but there is a partial scarcity, more or less acute, in the winter from November to March. But in many ways the problem is most acute in the country. "It is in those districts where one would most naturally expect to find the lack of milk least acute that it has most been the subject of complaint that milk cannot be procured, more particularly so far as the labouring population is concerned. The causes of scarcity are many. . . . In County Meath, where the rich pasture lands are principally devoted to fattening cattle . . . milch cows are believed to be less profitable than fat cattle, and unless a person can keep a cow at his own expense, milk is practically unobtainable. In Counties Antrim and Armagh, and part of County Down, the complaint was not so much that milk was not actually procurable as that it might be available in larger quantities if a proper system of selection in breeding milch cows were encouraged by the Department of Agriculture. . . . The complaint most frequently made by the rural labourer was that, whereas milk is produced in abundance, it is not procurable for money, and for this the blame was universally put on the creamery system. In Connemara and portions of County Donegal adjoining the seaboard the reason assigned for the absence of milk was that the land was too poor to support milch cattle; that the Galloway cow, which is notoriously a poor milker, has been largely introduced because it can subsist on scanty pasture." Later we are told that the relations between the labourer and farmer have become more impersonal, largely because of the introduction of the Labourers' Acts. The farmer "no longer regards it as a moral obligation to supply the occasional labourer with milk, buttermilk or skim milk." The difficulty experienced by the labourer in obtaining milk is one of the main causes in the revolution which has taken place in his diet. This was described a decade ago by the Irish witnesses before the Physical Deterioration Committee. Similar evidence of a very striking character was given before the Milk Commission. "Fifty years ago, and even up to a later period, the people lived to a great extent upon potatoes, supplemented by oatmeal porridge and milk. Repeated failures of the potato crop have gradually lessened the reliance of the people upon the potato, and although it is a large feature of their dietary, it is now a diminishing one. For oatmeal porridge, Indian meal was first substituted, and now oatmeal is hardly ever partaken of, and Indian meal rarely, except in the very poor districts in the West of Ireland, the places of porridge, milk and potatoes being supplied to a large extent by bread and tea—tea with a good deal of sugar, but with little, if any, milk. The consequence of the change is that the more varied dietary of the past, with its great saving feature, milk, is supplanted by a more monotonous and less easily assimilated food of bread and strong sweet tea. . . . The serious loss of nourishment incurred through the substitution of tea for milk may possibly account for much of the malnutrition and dyspepsia from which the poorer classes in Ireland suffer."

These considerations, the full significance of which can only be gathered from a perusal of this powerful report, present the phenomena of the Irish agricultural revolution of our time in a new light. It is sometimes not realised that nearly all the changes which rural reformers advocate, and which have made considerable progress in Ireland, mean in one way or another the commercialisation and the industrialisation of agriculture. One of the most important social effects of the industrial revolution in England was the wholesale destruction which it wrought over large areas in the old traditions of domestic economy among the poor. It is a striking fact that the destructiveness of the industrial revolution in this respect was less complete in Yorkshire than in Lancashire, probably largely because the changes were, on the whole, less rapid in the former county. But what has undoubtedly happened in Ireland (even when all allowances are made for the tendencies of Irish Commissioners to take up to an undue extent the position of *laudatores temporis acti*) is the counterpart in a somewhat different form of what happened during the Industrial Revolution in England. Fine old traditions of healthy fare and good housekeeping do not secure recognition in the lore of a commercialised political economy, any more than they do in the actual business considerations of the life with which that political economy deals. Farmers who are producing milk for a creamery, and creamery managers who are competing for the milk of the farmers of a district, do not want to be bothered with selling penn'orths to penurious labourers. Graziers who find that it pays to concentrate on rearing fat cattle for the butcher are not concerned with the consideration that infants may be dying, that children may be sickening, or that mothers may be unable to suckle their babes throughout a whole country-side for lack of cow's milk.

It is only to be expected that we should find one class of reformers who seek a remedy for the evil in the proposal "that creameries (and even individual farmers) should be required by law to sell milk to all comers." When the Commissioners state that this would necessarily be "an unjustifiable restriction on

the liberty of the individual to conduct his trade in whatever way he finds advantageous," they are, of course, merely providing an example of the lamentable backwardness of economic thought across St. George's Channel. But we agree that such a course is impracticable. You cannot renovate feudal principles by law in modern industrialism. The main remedy which the Commissioners recommend for dealing with the problem is an application of the principles of co-operative distribution, through the formation of milk clubs. This proposal is particularly interesting in view of the blow which the Government recently dealt at co-operative distribution in Ireland by refusing to subsidise the Agricultural Organisation Society so long as it included the furthering of this form of co-operation in its aims. Milk clubs would have a far greater chance of succeeding if they could be grafted on to other forms of co-operation. Other suggestions are the encouragement of winter dairying and of cow-testing associations, the liberal exercise by the Estates Commissioners and the Congested Districts Board of their powers to provide plots for the grazing of labourers' cows, the hiring of fields by Rural District Councils for the same purpose, and, above all, the encouragement of the keeping and improvement of the breed of goats. On this last point Mr. Robertson Scott's evidence in the Appendix breathes the spirit of practical zeal. With regard to the supply of milk in towns the Commission recommends that Irish municipalities should be given power (which they do not yet possess) to contribute to the support of infants' milk depots, and that in small (but not in large) towns should be allowed to undertake the sale of milk. The advantages of long rather than short contracts with farmers for the supply of milk to such municipal undertakings are clearly emphasised.

The section of the report dealing with the purity of the milk supply is full of the horrors which we are now well accustomed to associate with uncontrolled individual enterprise in this industry. The whole of this part of the report deserves the careful attention of everyone interested in public health administration. Every phase of the problem of the contamination of milk is explained with striking illustrations. Here is a single example. "In a district of Dublin containing over 12,000 inhabitants, and supplied with milk by twenty dairy proprietors, there were at one time 133 cases of enteric fever, of which 123 were supplied with milk from one particular dairy. There can be no possibility of doubt that the milk from the dairy in question was infected, but the Public Health Authority were advised by their Law Officers that under existing regulations they could take no action to prevent the milk from being sold." When legal action is possible and inspection is actually carried out ludicrously small fines are often imposed on gross offenders. The problem of administrative control is dealt with by the Commission in the light of experience gained both in Ireland and in Great Britain. "If the Dairies, Cowsheds and Milkshops Order of 1908 were efficiently enforced by the local authorities, much of the commonest and most serious forms of contamination of milk could be prevented." But this order only enables local authorities to act within their own areas. Naturally the rural authorities, largely representing milk producers, will do nothing. "Under Section 19 of the Tuberculosis Prevention (I.) Act, 1908, an urban authority may be invested by the Local Government Board with powers of control over outside dairies . . . and applications for such powers have been made by the health authority *inter alia* of Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Bangor, Newry, and Rathmines. . . . Up to the present no Order conferring powers of control over outside dairies has been issued. . . . It might be desirable for the Local Government Board to change their policy." This is, indeed, a mild way of putting it! The difficulty of outside control lies in the overlapping problem. The Commission has worked out a scheme involving co-operation between the Department of Agriculture and the Local Government Board, and the appointment of whole-time veterinary inspectors by counties and county boroughs (with salaries half paid by the Department of Agriculture) and of chief inspectors in the service of the Department. These county and Government inspectors are to be responsible for all questions affecting the health of cattle both from an agricultural and from a public health point of view. Thus the solution of outside inspection by the urban authorities is rejected, and the action of the Department of Agriculture is in the last resort depended on to secure the effective treatment of a public health question. Will the "pull" of this central authority be strong enough to meet the demands of the urban authorities that their children and their poor shall not be made the victims of the ignorant and rapacious uncleanliness of the dairy farmer? And this, above all, under a Home Rule Parliament dominated by agriculturists. We seem to see the real "things that matter" in the new Ireland looming through the mist.

THE DUBLIN RIOTS

Report of the Dublin Disturbances Commission. Cd. 7269. 2½d.

In reading this report it is necessary to bear in mind that it is substantially a brief in defence of the police. The great majority of the witnesses heard were policemen—202 out of 281—and, for reasons which may or may not have been wise, the parties who accused authorities of improper use of their powers refused to give evidence. The enquiry dealt with riots which occurred on August 30th and 31st and September 1st, 2nd, and 21st; but the origin of the disturbances was long before those dates. In a perfunctory paragraph the Commissioners state that thirty strikes occurred in Dublin between January and the middle of 1913, many of which were accompanied with actual violence, and the unrest culminated in the tramway strike and in the "great resentment" caused against the tramway company and the police who protected the men who continued at work. Even if we take the blackest view of the conduct of the riotous strikers, common-sense tells us that crowds of workmen do not get into the violent state of mind in which they are alleged to have been between August 30th and September 22nd unless they had been subjected to a prolonged and, at least in part, needless exacerbation. The "mob" must have seen that, while their leaders, in language provocative enough, but not too strong for the circumstances, were urging them to an economic revolt, the authorities were doing nothing to remedy the humiliating and disgusting conditions under which men lived and worked, but were ready enough to prosecute forty-five who contravened, grossly it may be, law and order. Such was the state of things in Dublin in August, 1913, that "law and order" meant victory for the masters and defeat for the victims of low wages and slum housing. Little wonder that the "mob" was filled with animosity for the authorities and for the servants of the authorities, and when the Sackville Street meeting on August 31st was foolishly proclaimed, and Larkin was arrested on August 28th on charges which ended in a ludicrous *débâcle* for Dublin Castle, trouble might have been expected even in a much less turbulent city than Dublin. No matter who was to blame for the actual deeds of violence, the real responsibility lay on the employers of Dublin and on the supine authorities who neglected their duties as protectors of the poor. Nothing of this appears in the report, but we find that, "although all the riots were directly or indirectly the result of industrial disputes, they were not confined to working men, and in all of them the worst element was supplied by those who seldom or never work, and who may be described as the corner-boys and criminal class in the city." Even so, no attempt is made to discriminate, but striker and loafer are blent in one red ruin of condemnation. And who created the corner-boy?

It seems plain that the riots of August 30th were a spontaneous outburst of disorder, but the worst disturbance arose out of the hissing, and later the pelting, of twenty policemen stationed outside Liberty Hall. Why they were there does not appear, but it looks as if the police had been inviting trouble. In the baton charges "a man called James Nolan" and "a labourer named John Byrne" were killed, and the Commissioners "are of opinion that in the case of both these crowds their conduct towards the police clearly showed to any peaceable persons the danger that they ran by remaining members of them." This new principle of *caveat pacificus*, even to the extent of fighting your way out of a riotous mob, is simply ludicrous, and well shows the mental attitude of the Commissioners. The Sackville Street riot of the following afternoon is described at length, and it is quite clear that it was in the main due to the mismanagement of the police authorities. At first there was no dangerous crowd and the rushes or surgings were easily repelled; but it was surely an act of foolish provocation to take the arrested Larkin out into the street in sight of his followers. Of course there was some stone-throwing, of course rescue was feared, of course it was considered necessary to disperse the crowd—it all follows like a proposition in Euclid. Mismanagement, or, as they put it, "misunderstanding," is admitted by the Commissioners, and "any unnecessary or excessive force used by the police during the suppression of this riot was due to this misunderstanding." In the report the sufferings of innocent people who were justifiably in Sackville Street are quite glossed over.

The natural sequel to the afternoon was the grave riot of Sunday night when, under cover of darkness, the forces of disorder sought revenge. The police were attacked with bottles and stones, and, in different parts of the city, forty or fifty of them were injured, in some cases severely. These riots had to be, and were, suppressed. Apart from the general indiscriminate fighting, there were many savage attacks on the police, and even if there was some unnecessary force used in self-defence—of which there is little evidence—it was justifiable. These remarks do not

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apply to the Corporation Buildings raid by a number of police who, like soldiers in a captured city, lost their heads in the lust of combat, and sacked dwellings and assaulted their occupants "without justification," as the Commissioners say. Nothing is said as to compensating the sufferers.

Next day there was rioting as an aftermath of the disorder of the previous night, but "the most determined and disgraceful" riot took place on September 21st, when a procession headed by "a crowd of roughs" made "an organised attempt to overwhelm the force which had accompanied them," and 36 policemen were injured. One would like to hear the other side, but it seems to have been a gross attack. This was the last outbreak, for the support and sympathy of the British trade unionists were having their effect. The Commissioners praise the "zeal and determination" of the police which prevented "the outburst of lawlessness" from assuming more serious proportions; but had there been more wisdom in the government of Ireland, the outbreak would never have taken place.

THE IRISH CHURCH FUND

Church Temporalities (Ireland) Accounts, 1912-13. H.C. 78 of 1914. 2d.

The cash transactions in respect of Church Temporalities in Ireland from July 26th, 1869, to March 31st, 1913, have amounted to £41,630,450. The expenditure is of considerable interest and may be summarised as follows:

	£		£
Compensation, etc., to Clergy	27,398,429	Congested Districts Board	882,840
Education	3,879,029	Department of Agriculture	910,000
Relief of Distress ...	3,738,386	Income Tax and Miscellaneous ...	477,316
Arrears of Rent ...	2,494,513	Purchase of Securities	1,162,072
Sea Fisheries ...	548,124		
Piers and Roads ...	43,850		
Seed Potatoes ...	26,072		

The balance of cash in hand on March 31st, 1913, was £69,819, and of securities £671,740. Of the advances for relief of distress £1,122,151 has been repaid by the Commissioners of Public Works and £99,953 is still due from them: £20,921 has been repaid by the Irish Land Commission and £5,671 is still due. There are capital liabilities outstanding in respect of £1,300,000 under the National School Teachers Act (Ireland), 1879, and £1,500,000 under the Purchase of Land (Ireland) Act 1891. The income of the fund in 1912–13 amounted to £240,269, of which £124,542 was permanent, and £115,727 terminable, church revenue. Since 1869 £7,278,369 has been received for the sale or redemption of property; of this, £4,464,487 was produced by the sale of tithe rent-charges and other rentals amounting to £485,606 annually

IRISH LAND

Report of the Estates Commissioners, 1912-13 and 1903-13. Cd. 7145. 11½d. Also other reports on Irish Land (see Classified List).

The following short table shows the position of land purchase in Ireland on November 30th, 1913:

A. Proceedings before the Estates Commissioners:

	Estates	Purchasers	Amount £
1. Direct Sales by vendors to tenants:			
Advances made	6,036	133,775	49,096,644
Advances applied for, but not yet made	3,792	95,294	27,836,067
2. Sales by vendors and Land Judge to Estate Commissioners, Congested Districts Board, etc.:			
Advances made	1,195	45,148	10,970,933
Offers accepted, but advances not yet made	160	8,210	1,423,008
3. Total advances	7,231	178,923	60,067,577
Total advances not yet made ...	3,952	103,504	29,259,075

In addition 2,278 applications were made for advances of £956,615 in cases of direct sales, but were refused; 87 estates valued at £1,060,453 were pending for sale by vendors or Land Judge to the Commissioners, etc.

B. Proceedings other than before the Estates Commissioners:

	Purchasers	Amount £
Loans under Acts 1885 and 1888	25,367	9,992,536
Loans under Acts 1891–1896	46,892	13,649,689
Loans, etc., under Act of 1903	12,504	2,158,370
Loans under Act of 1909	380	92,853

The total of advances is thus £85,961,025 to 264,068 purchasers. Full details of all advances are given in the monthly returns; the number of years' purchase varies considerably, but 23 to 26 is common. The average number of years' purchase was 22·4 for 3¼ per cent. annuities and 20·3 for 3½ per cent. annuities. Between November 1st, 1903, and March 31st, 1913, 114,050 acres were provided for the enlargement of 6,993 existing holdings, and 240,212 acres for 3,255 new holdings for evicted tenants, migrants, etc.

Proceedings between 1881 and November 30th, 1913, for the fixing of fair rents have resulted as follows:

	Statutory Term		
	First	Second	Third
Rent fixed by Courts	220,075	90,818	2,167
Struck out or dismissed ...	58,296	17,818	125
Withdrawn	17,051	2,941	40
Pending	3,202	1,029	1,099
Total Court cases ...	298,624	112,606	3,431
Rents fixed out of Court ...	160,404	51,095	346

Evictions still occur in Ireland, however; in the first nine months of 1913 557 tenants were converted into "caretakers" by receipt of an ejectment notice and 24 others had their tenancy terminated; 130 additional eviction notices were filed in the December quarter.

THE DOMINIONS COMMISSION

Royal Commission on the Natural Resources, Trade, and Legislation of Certain Portions of His Majesty's Dominions. Minutes of Evidence taken in New Zealand in 1913. Cd. 7170. 2s. Minutes of Evidence taken in Australia. Part I. Cd. 7171 2s. 11d. Part II. Cd. 7172. 3s.

The Commissioners were in New Zealand for a few weeks in February and March, 1913, and took evidence at Dunedin, Christchurch, Wellington, and Auckland. The Commission has adopted the sensible plan of printing the evidence, not in strict chronological order, but under the following main heads: Migration, Oversea Communications, Railways, Empire Development and Organisation, Natural Resources, Trade, and Legislation. All the witnesses who gave evidence as to the state of employment agreed that there was ample room for many more men, women, and children, skilled and unskilled, in all trades. The only testimony to the contrary effect came from the Auckland Branch of the New Zealand Federated Boot Trade Union, which supplied a statement showing that between Christmas, 1912, and March, 1913, a considerable amount of short time had been worked. This was partly because boot manufacturers were finding it more profitable to import British-made boots and sell them than to make their own. The secretary of the Union said that his members "wanted more workers on the land to be immigrated, as consuming more boots."

In agriculture especially does there seem to be an actual shortage of labour. The several New Zealanders who gave evidence on this subject told the Commissioners that what they particularly needed was more boy labour. A boy or youth who came without previous experience, and did as he was told, would in a year or two be earning good wages. English agricultural labourers who have left their youth behind them are not regarded as such promising material, they are said to be too slow. For the sake of getting youths to go out to New Zealand, however, their parents and elders would be also welcomed, although they took far longer to train. Perhaps the most extraordinary thing about agriculture in New Zealand is the wage paid in the flax industry. This subsists on casual and practically unskilled labour; the lowest wage paid for boys is £2 8s. 6d. per week, and men's wages rise to £6 7s. 6d. a week. The flax-mill owner who gave evidence before the Commissioners could suggest no reason for these exceptionally high rates. He said, however, that the high wages were harmful to morals, and fervently wished there was more cheap labour to be had.

The Oversea Communications section contains a few curious facts on the subject of freight discrimination. It appears considerably cheaper to send goods from Hamburg or Rotterdam via London to New Zealand than from London direct. In other words, the preferential tariff to British goods virtually goes to endow the steamship companies.

The evidence collected in New Zealand presents, in fact, in a concise form a survey of the state of things both in the Dominion and in the Commonwealth. The Commissioners spent more than two months in Australia, and collected a far greater quantity of material than in New Zealand, but very much to the same effect. Although here, as there, we find cases of witnesses occasionally contradicting one another, the same truths hold for Immigration; there is a demand for lads who are willing to work on farms and learn the business; experience of English agricultural methods apparently is considered as a disqualifying circumstance. There does not appear to be so much of the phenomenon of lower freights to non-British goods coming in British bottoms from a greater distance; but as German shipping companies generally charge lower rates than British companies, the effect on the Australian importer is much the same.

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RATIONS IN WARFARE

Military Rations on Active Service. Report on two experimental marches carried out for the purpose of deciding a scale of Field Service Rations; together with an account of some observations on Nitrogen Balance, etc. Cd. 7182. 1s. 1d.

This extremely interesting report brings to light the startling fact that the army ration hitherto provided for active service is seriously inadequate for its purpose. During the first march, which took place in the autumn of 1909 and lasted twelve days, the rations supplied were those laid down in the Allowance Regulations, paragraph 27. The party consisted of 20 men of the Loyal North Lancashire Regiment, two smaller groups and three medical members of the R.A.M.C., including Lieut.-Colonel Melville. The North Lancashires carried the Web equipment, weighing 54 lbs.; the others carried the regulation field equipment belonging to their corps. The weather conditions were extremely unfavourable, and "neither men nor officers slept in dry beds or put on dry underclothing during the march." At the start all members of the party were weighed and measured and their pulses and blood pressures recorded. During the march daily observations of the weights were made, and other measurements were taken at longer intervals. The result of the experiment was that 22 out of the 27 members of the party lost weight, and at the end of the march the average loss per member was ·97 kilogramme. Their faces were distinctly hollowed and their eyes sunken in the head. The test became known as the "hunger march"; all the officers felt that they were not getting enough to eat, and there was a general craving for sugar and fatty articles of diet. The hardness of the biscuits and stringy character of the meat caused soreness of the gums in 15 members of the party, and two of the men broke teeth when biting the biscuits. The average energy of the ration was 3,465 calories gross. This is 1,000 calories less than that laid down by Atwater for hard work and 760 calories less than that supplied to English convicts at hard labour. The general conclusion come to was that the service ration does not furnish sufficient energy for the performance of work a great deal less than that which the soldier must ordinarily be expected to perform on active service, and that the deficiency is about 1,000 calories. The Committee recommended that the active service ration should be one furnishing 4,500 calories, and, in order to prevent undue concentration, should not weigh less than 3¾ to 4 lbs. The present ration weighs only 3 lbs., while the French *ration forte* weighs from 3½ to 4 lbs. and the German special field ration over 4 lbs.

The second march began in August, 1910. The rations on this occasion were considerably increased, chiefly by the addition of bacon, cheese and oatmeal, the average amount of energy available being 4,500 calories. The supply was found to be infinitely better, both as regards composition and quality. Signs of wasting were not produced, and at the end of the march the average weight of the men was slightly greater than at the start. There was no craving for fat or sugar, and the men felt that they had had enough to eat.

In 1911, after considering these experiments, the Army Council decided that the field service ration should be of 3 lbs. weight and 4,500 calories. It is, perhaps, a matter for regret that they did not increase the weight to 3¾ lbs. as recommended by the original Committee.

It appears, therefore, that, in spite of modern scientific knowledge relating to the energy-value of food-stuffs, the army regulations until the year 1911 provided for our soldiers on active service a ration seriously insufficient for their needs, appreciably less than that supplied to the French and German armies, and even less than that provided for convicts. The Committee remarked that "they are not aware of the reasons which led to the present weight being fixed upon, but it does not appear that it was arrived at as the result of any accurate observations of the amount of energy demanded by the exigencies of active service, or of the amount that could be furnished by the various food-stuffs." It would be interesting to know the extent of the harm done by this haphazard and characteristically British proceeding. As the Committee say, there is no doubt that an insufficient supply of food in war is a very fruitful cause of disease. A man's power of resisting the attacks of epidemic disease undoubtedly depends more upon his being well fed than on any other one condition. Emphatically, the only item of supply that can be placed before food is ammunition. All other articles, clothes, medicine, even hospital accommodation, should give way to this imperative need.

The report contains many interesting details, but the intermingling throughout of the metric and British systems of weights and measures is confusing. It is not clear why the publication has been delayed for more than two years after the conclusion of the experiment.

PUBLIC HEALTH IN 1912-13

Forty-second Annual Report of the Local Government Board, 1912-13. Supplement containing the Report of the Medical Officer. Cd. 7181. 4s.

The BLUE BOOK SUPPLEMENT for January 24th, 1914, contained a review of the third part of the Annual Report of the Local Government Board, which deals largely with public health administration. The present volume is primarily a record of the facts of public health upon which the administrative machinery is brought to bear. It is difficult to be convinced that this plan of separating the facts from the administration is altogether desirable. No doubt it is based on the theory that the Medical Officer collects the facts, and merely advises the "Board" upon the administrative action to be taken thereon. It might possibly be argued, in addition, that the matter contained in the Medical Officer's report is of a technical character, intended for the consumption of the medical officer, as opposed to the administrative considerations, intended for the study of the elected person. But this point of view would not square with the facts, since by far the greater part of the Medical Officer's report is generally intelligible to the layman, although some of the details are of special significance to the qualified medical man. We venture to suggest to Mr. Samuel that it would be more convenient if the Board would issue a single annual volume dealing with public health generally. Such a volume would combine the eighty pages of the public health section of Part III. of the Board's report with the seventy pages of the Medical Officer's report proper. The interesting but bulky appendices of the latter volume would then naturally be issued separately (just as special reports on Infantile Mortality are now); while the financial section of the former volume would also, as was suggested in the SUPPLEMENT last month, best constitute a wholly distinct part of the report of the Board. It is in reality impossible to separate questions of public health from the problems of public health administration, and there is a considerable amount of repetition in the Medical Officer's report of facts already presented, from a slightly different angle, in the report of the Board. The only reasonable course in reading either report is to keep an eye on the corresponding section in the sister volume. That this should be necessary seems to indicate a case for reform (which might also save some duplication of work in the Board).

The death-rate for 1912 was the lowest recorded. The rise from 13·5 in 1910 to 14·6 in 1911 (due to the hot summer) was followed by a fall to 13·3 in 1912 (as against 16·9 in 1901). An exception to the general decline in the death-rate since 1901 is to be found in the case of men aged over 55. This subject, so far as arterial degeneration is concerned, is under investigation by the Board. There was a marked decline in the death-rate from diphtheria and enteric fever in 1912, but a slight increase in the death-rate from scarlet fever. The administrative control of diphtheria is beset with difficulties, not yet completely overcome, owing to the protracted duration of infectivity. Thus one local Medical Officer in 1912 discovered the persistence of bacilli, of proved virulence to guinea-pigs, in the throat of a patient at the end of eight months after the attack of diphtheria. Enteric fever is well known to arise in many cases from the pollution of shellfish, water, or milk. Much improvement has occurred in the conditions of laying and storing oysters. But the part played by mussels and cockles in disseminating enteric has come into prominence as the result of investigations, particularly in Belfast, where the population is much addicted to mussel-eating. Dr. Niven found that in 108 out of 242 cases of enteric notified in Manchester during 1912, mussels had been eaten during the three weeks prior to the onset of the disease. Similar evidence is forthcoming from Birmingham and Liverpool. The Board is considering draft regulations which will give sanitary authorities additional powers to deal with shellfish beds liable to pollution. There were outbreaks of enteric owing to the pollution of the water supply by sewage at Rochester and at Ringwood (Hants). At Colne, Harwich, and in the West Riding cases of enteric were traced to infection conveyed through milk—another series of warnings of the necessity of ensuring the purity of the milk supply. It is interesting to note that the City Council of Manchester decided to pay a weekly allowance to a woman, who would probably have infected her lodgers with enteric, in order to induce her to refrain from taking in lodgers. There does not appear to be any reference either in the Local Government Board report or in the Medical Officer's report to the numerous instances in which local authorities have taken power through clauses in local Acts to compensate persons for giving up their employment at the request of the Medical Officer of Health in order to avoid the risk of spreading infection. It would be valuable to know how much use is made of this power. According to the Unemployment Benefits Report of 1911 (Cd. 5703, p. 5), a number of Trade Unions in the building

and clothing trades, including 18,000 members, have arrangements for paying unemployment benefit "only in cases of contagious diseases at home," while, of course, all other Unions which pay Unemployment Benefit would also pay on account of unemployment arising from this cause. It would seem to be only just (as well as expedient, from a public health point of view) that the community as a whole, and not the Trade Union, should assume the obligation of meeting the full cost of this type of unemployment.

The section of the report dealing with measles is of special interest and importance. "The administrative control of measles," writes Dr. Newsholme, "presents very great difficulties. . . . Probably the notification of first cases in a family by the medical attendant or by the parent would be helpful. Compulsory notification of all recognised cases under the Infectious Diseases (Notification) Act has not, however, had any marked success; and a number of local authorities, who had added measles to the list of notifiable diseases, have applied to the Board for, and have received, permission to revoke the orders. . . . Evidently no system of notification is likely to fulfil its possibilities of utility, unless during epidemic periods the local council follow the advice given in the Board's Circular of April 10th, 1911, to the effect that it is essential that each Medical Officer of Health should be provided with an adequate staff, including additional assistants (medical and other)." The death-rate from measles fluctuates very considerably. There appears, on the whole, to be a decline during the last quarter of a century, but "it cannot at present be affirmed that the reduced death-rate from measles will persist."

When we turn to the pages of Dr. Newsholme's report dealing with tuberculosis, we seem to feel more than ever the advantages which would arise from the amalgamation of his report with that of the Board. Dr. Newsholme begins with a very important discussion of the statistics of tuberculosis. "The proportion between notifications of and deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis varies greatly in different parts of the country, and in different parts of the same administrative county, in some areas the notified cases equalling or not much exceeding the deaths, while in other areas notified cases number four times the deaths. Although no certain inference can be drawn from these differences until after several years' experience has accumulated, the Medical Officer of Health of a district in which the notifications of phthisis do not number more than twice the deaths from this disease may advisedly consider whether in his area there is not failure to notify, and whether the local administrative arrangements for the control of tuberculosis are such as to ensure the confidence of local medical practitioners and patients." The migration of tuberculous persons renders the comparison, as between different areas, of the real extent of the prevalence of tuberculosis exceedingly difficult. Dr. Newsholme is inclined to think that the excessive male phthisis death-rate in London, Liverpool, and Manchester is due in part to the immigration of casual labourers and vagrants, among whom the death-rate from tuberculosis is very excessive. The high rates in the less densely populated Welsh counties may also be due to the migration of damaged lives from Glamorganshire and Monmouthshire, and a similar tendency is, of course, at work in the seaside health resorts. The whole question should be studied in connection with the Phthisis Map of England and Wales which is included in the volume. The age incidence of the maximum phthisis death-rate in both sexes is earlier in life in rural districts than in towns. "Urban conditions evidently do not imply the same excess of phthisis for women as for men. This fact may be open to another method of statement. Some influence or influences are operating in rural districts, so far as women are concerned—probably in connection with housing of the healthy and the sick—which prevent them from benefitting from the more favourable general conditions of rural life." Dr. Newsholme makes many suggestions with regard to the lines to be followed in various details of the organisation of the campaign against tuberculosis. One point throws a sidelight on the disadvantages of a private medical service. It is of the greatest importance, both from a public health point of view and in connection with the treatment of the patient, to secure an examination of sputum for tubercle bacilli. Many local authorities have not yet provided for the free examination of sputum. In the areas of those which have done so practitioners often refuse to avail themselves of it, and, to quote Dr. Newsholme's own words, "there is little doubt that many patients continue to be treated for bronchitis, etc., long after they might have been recognised as tuberculous if sputum had been repeatedly examined."

The appendices contain, *inter alia*, detailed surveys by Dr. Bruce Low of the incidence of plague, cholera, and yellow fever in 1911 and 1912. "There exists apprehension in the minds of some experts that the opening of the Panama Canal may furnish facilities for the spread of the infection of yellow fever as a consequence of the linking up of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and the shortening of the voyage to Europe from the much-infected yellow fever areas on the north-west coast of South America and in Central America." The Appendix also includes a report on the Food Inspection Branch of the Medical Department. "Following on enquiries made by one of the inspectors, the Board found it necessary to make representations, through the Foreign Office, to the Argentine Government in regard to the occurrence of tuberculous lesions in meat imported from Argentina. As a result the Argentine authorities took steps to improve the inspection of meat intended for export from that country." Dr. Thursfield contributes a report on the enquiry into the causes of death in measles. A paper by Mr. C. Strickland on the Biology of the Common Rat-Flea of Great Britain makes very interesting reading even for the uninitiated.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS AND REFORMATORIES

Fifty-sixth Report for the year 1912 of the Chief Inspector of Reformatories and Industrial Schools of Great Britain. Cd. 7196. 7d.

Last year a detailed and important report was issued by a Departmental Committee on Reformatory and Industrial Schools (reviewed in The BLUE BOOK SUPPLEMENT, June 21st, 1913). In November it was announced that, in accordance with the recommendation of the majority of the Committee, a special Children's Department of the Home Office had been constituted. Meanwhile Mr. C. E. B. Russell, the well-known worker amongst Manchester boys, had been appointed Chief Inspector of Reformatories and Industrial Schools. All those who are interested in the problems of social welfare affecting juveniles will follow with great interest Mr. Russell's career as a public official. The present report is the first to appear above his signature; but it deals with a period previous to his tenure of office, and therefore it is only natural that he should "think it desirable to limit the body of the report mainly to statistical matter." But the announcement in the King's Speech that the Government intends to introduce measures to deal with the treatment of offences by young persons gives an added interest to this document.

The reformatories and industrial schools of Great Britain (in this connection the authority of the Home Office extends over Scotland) are responsible for the well-being of some forty thousand boys and girls, including both the twenty-nine thousand children under legal detention, or in day industrial schools, and the ten thousand or so upon whom the Home Office requires reports to be obtained, though no legal powers of detention over them exist. The report does not present the statistics with regard to the various classes of schools collectively, nor are the summaries always very clear. But the following table, extracted from various parts of the Report, appears to summarise the chief statistical facts as clearly as possible:

BOYS.

	Under Detention, 31st December, 1912		Admissions in 1912.	Discharges in 1912.
	In School or Auxiliary Home.	Total.		
Reformatories	4,132	5,112	1,322	1,423
Industrial Schools ...	11,511	12,360	3,049	2,985
Short-term Industrial Schools	1,092	3,067	1,181	1,151
Day Industrial Schools ...	2,098	2,206	1,148	967
Total	18,833	22,745	6,700	6,526

GIRLS.

	Under Detention.		Admissions in 1912.	Discharges in 1912.
	In School or Auxiliary Home.	Total.		
Reformatories	599	646	179	176
Industrial Schools ...	4,300	4,591	1,033	899
Short-term Industrial Schools	—	—	—	—
Day Industrial Schools ...	1,329	1,440	723	564
Total	6,228	6,677	1,935	1,639

Rather over 500 of the discharges and a similar number of the admissions of boys and girls, taken together, represent transfers from one school to another, or from a school to a reformatory.

Most of the difference between the numbers actually in schools and the total number "under detention" is explained by the boys and girls allowed to leave the schools "on license."

There is an increase in the number of admissions to the English schools, particularly in the case of boys. This is held to be due probably "to a wiser administration of the Probation Act, children being committed when first brought before the justices, instead of being placed upon probation, and also to the greater use of Special Schools for particularly difficult cases." The following table indicates the family circumstances which were obtained in about two-thirds of the cases of admissions to industrial schools during 1912:

—	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Illegitimate	200	96	296
Both parents dead	44	14	58
Father dead	381	128	509
Mother dead	412	166	578
Deserted by both parents ...	134	63	197
One or both parents destitute or criminal	211	185	396
	1,382	652	2,034

Under Section 53 of the Children Act the managers of an industrial school may, with the consent of the Home Secretary, board out a child committed under the age of eight years until he reaches the age of ten years, or, with the consent of the Home Secretary, for a longer period. The value of this power is gradually being realised, since the presence of very young boys in an industrial school is obviously undesirable (although, on the other hand, there appear to be some advantages in the presence of small girls amongst the older girls). The London County Council has been the principal authority to adopt the boarding-out policy. In 1912 33 girls and 18 boys were boarded out by industrial school managers throughout the country. If this policy grows (as it probably will) the chaos of unco-ordinated children's welfare work will become still more anomalous.

The Departmental Committee had to make some very unfavourable comments upon the system of after-care which obtains in connection with industrial schools. Over 20 per cent. of the 11,500 boys who left industrial schools in 1909, 1910, and 1911 are now in the Army or Navy. There are 886 boys classed as "labourers," 426 as "casual" workers, and 326 as "messengers and porters" (doubtless, for the most part, errand boys). Rather a large proportion (56 out of 400) of the boys in "factories, works, etc.," are employed in glass works. (There is always a large demand for boys in glass works as "takers in," who can earn high wages for a year or two, but have no chance of becoming apprentices.) Mr. Russell will, no doubt, see to it that a much more thorough account of the industrial records of boys and girls discharged from the schools is obtained in future. He draws special attention to the defects in the system of after-supervision for boys and girls who have attended day industrial schools. An effort is now being made to obtain records with regard to these, but "the proportion of children about whom no information can be obtained by the managers of several of the schools is unduly large."

The special report of Dr. Branthwaite, the Medical Adviser to the Department, is an admirable piece of work, full of an individuality not always to be found in Blue Books. Dr. Branthwaite draws attention to the comments of the Departmental Committee on Reformatories and Industrial Schools upon the medical services established in connection with these institutions. Very often the medical officers receive no remuneration at all or a wholly inadequate fee. This voluntary service is very praiseworthy, and no doubt deserves the recognition which both the Committee and Dr. Branthwaite accord to it. But it has its disadvantages. Many of the doctors naturally do not "take the view that every circumstance bearing upon the sanitary state of the buildings and the health of inmates is their business," but "maintain that their responsibility begins and ends with the relief of aches and pains, an attitude fostered by managers, who (too often) are unable to pay for more than such medical services as prove absolutely necessary." The quarterly medical reports which, by a Home Office regulation, have to be forwarded to the Chief Inspector are often of the most formal character. In many cases the quarterly reports have been printed (with only a space left for the signature of the medical officer) in some such form as the following: "I certify that the school is in good sanitary condition, and the boys fit for the training and discipline thereof." "Copies of one or other of such reports," writes Dr. Branthwaite, "have been sent in quarterly by about twenty schools, without variation in wording, during many years past." Not content with a purely critical attitude, Dr. Branthwaite reprints a copy of a model report by a capable medical officer. He makes a series of admirable suggestions with regard to improvements in the system of keeping physical records of the children, in the sanitation and lighting of the schools, and in the organisation of the curriculum. Like the Chief Inspector of Irish Industrial Schools (see review of his Report in the BLUE BOOK SUPPLEMENT, December 13th, 1913), he draws special attention to defects in heating apparatus in the schools; and he further protests against the prejudices of the managers and teachers of reformatory and industrial schools against open-air teaching. He concludes with a survey of the important section of the reformatory and industrial schools system consisting of institutions for mentally or physically defective children. There must be not a few school medical officers who would find Dr. Branthwaite's report of great interest. It is to be regretted that he and his colleague, Mr. Russell, are the servants of a department in which the special problems of child welfare only occupy a subordinate position. But we shall certainly look forward to their future reports with anticipations of reforms and achievements as far reaching as the conditions of their work allow.

SMALL SCHOOLS IN ENGLISH EDUCATION

Public Elementary Schools in England and Wales. Tabular Statement showing, for the area of each Local Education Authority for Elementary Education in England and Wales, the number of Departments of ordinary Public Elementary Schools with an average attendance not exceeding 100. Cd. 7214. 2½d.

The existence of a number of small schools in an area has a very direct bearing upon the problems of staffing and on the finance of Elementary Education. This return should be read in connection with the special staffing return (Cd. 6933, reviewed in BLUE BOOK SUPPLEMENT, October 4th, 1913) and the annual and special financial returns (Cd. 7204 and Cd. 7186, reviewed in BLUE BOOK SUPPLEMENT, January 24th, 1914). It deals with all the 21,330 public elementary schools, including 446 special or higher elementary schools of various types. These schools include 32,234 departments. Nearly three-eighths of these (12,007) have an attendance not exceeding 100. The 12,007 are distributed as follows:

Average attendance.	No. of Departments.	Departments for	No.	Departments maintained by	No.	Per cent. of all departments of each class of authority.
1–30	1,388	Boys	430	County Councils	10,987	57·3
31–40	1,439	Girls	372	Non-County Boroughs ...	401	15·4
41–50	1,617	Mixed	8,544	Urban Districts	84	6·5
51–60	1,675	Infants	2,661	London	98	4·2
61–80	3,068			County Boroughs	402	6·0
81–100	2,820			Not maintained by local authority	35	43·2

If these figures are read in connection with the table contained in Cd. 6933, one remarkable fact becomes clear. Although in the English counties the staff per 1,000 scholars in average attendance (33·8) is markedly higher than it is in London (26·7), the Non-County Boroughs (29·8), the Urban Districts (27·2) and the County Boroughs (28·2), nevertheless the expenditure on teachers' salaries per unit of average attendance in the counties (53s. 1d.) is lower than in London (80s. 10d.), the Non-County Boroughs (55s. 5d.), the Urban Districts (60s. 10d.) and the County Boroughs (56s. 11d.). That is to say, in the counties there is a tendency for the teachers' wages bill to run up owing to the number of small schools, and consequent high percentage of teachers to scholars, necessitated not by any righteous zeal for small classes, but by the nature of things. Nevertheless, the counties succeed in counteracting, and indeed far more than counteracting, this tendency by hiring a cheap kind of teacher at a cheap rate. *Hinc illæ lacrimæ*—in Herefordshire and elsewhere. Farmers and agricultural landlords have grown fat on high prices during the last few years. The Treasury should not grant a penny in relief of rural rates until the Board of Education has issued a definite fiat that the sweating of rural teachers shall cease. At present the dominant rural interests are simply compensating themselves for the greater expensiveness of staffing a small school system by dipping their hands into the pocket of the teacher.

RAILWAY WAGES

Railway Companies (Staff and Wages): Return showing the Number of Staff employed and the Amount of Salaries and Wages paid by the several Railway Companies in each of the weeks ended February 10th, May 18th, August 31st, and December 7th, 1912. H. of C. 293. 7½d.

Comment has already been made in the editorial columns of The New Statesman upon the form in which this Return is set out. The Board of Trade in some of its departments has set a high standard of statistical presentation, which has been a model in many respects to the statistical departments of other Governments. It is extraordinary that the Board should allow its reputation to be besmirched by a production like this. The return appears to have been compiled by officials who are absolutely ignorant of all the difficulties connected with the interpretation of wages statistics. It consists of seventy-five folio pages. The remuneration of the wages staff and of the salaried staff of the different companies is shown separately. Each class is divided into Way and Works, Working Stock Maintenance, Operating and Traffic, while the salaried staff includes a section headed "General," in which the salary of the General Manager is lumped with that of his clerks and office boys. There are various subdivisions in all the main classes. But, instead of any attempt at tabular arrangement, the facts are set out in closely printed paragraphs, from which the following specimen is extracted. (A, B, C, and D indicate the four dates specified in the title.)

SALARIED STAFF.

Great Central Railway Company.

Way and Works—Number employed: A 182; B 182; C 186; D 190. Amount paid: A £521; B £519; C £529; D £537.

General (Secretary, General Manager, Accountant and Clerks)—Number employed: A 446; B 433; C 438; D 448. Amount paid: A £1,101; B £1,100; C £1,078; D £1,097.

If the figures are of any value at all, it is for the purpose of showing (*a*) the total wages bill of each company, (*b*) the average wage of the various groups of workers, and (*c*) the fluctuations in the numbers employed. No attempt is made in the return to include calculations with regard to any of these sets of figures. At the cost of rather over an hour's labour we have worked out the figures of the average weekly wage (taking the four dates together) of the wages staff in the Operating and Traffic Department of three large railways (excluding the figures for "superintendence" on one railway).

Railway.	Locomotive Department.	Signalmen and Gatemen.	Ticket Collectors, Policemen and Porters.	Guards.	Collection and Delivery of Parcels and Goods.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Great Central ...	1 14 10	1 4 8	1 1 5	1 12 6	1 1 3
Great Eastern ..	1 11 4	1 3 1	1 2 8	1 11 4	1 1 2
Great Northern	1 14 11	1 7 6	1 2 6	1 11 9	1 1 6

It is worth noting that some of the small railways show extraordinarily low rates of wages compared with those paid on the important lines. Thus the average wage of the nine or ten men in the Locomotive Department of the Colne Valley and Halstead Railway is not much over a pound a week. Ten men in a week in May received £13 16s. 10d., while 10 signalmen and gatemen shared out £8 7s. 10d. On the same railway 18 ticket-collectors, policemen, and porters received in all £15 2s. 6d., and 3 parcels and goods deliverers £2 3s. 6d., while 3 guards earned 25s. each. Those who have traversed the smiling valleys of Mr. Lloyd George's native county on the Cambrian Railway will be interested to learn that its wages are only a little better than those of the Colne Valley Railway on the other side of the kingdom. Three hundred men in the Locomotive Department earned almost exactly £400 in a week, while 58 signalmen received £70 11s.

No doubt the railway directors, confronted with these figures, will have recourse to the old plea that the averages are vitiated by the inclusion of a certain number of boys and youths in some sections. It is unfortunate that the Board of Trade has not anticipated this objection to the figures. But the whole return is such a scandalous example of ill-directed clerical labour (to say nothing of the cost of printing) that it is almost waste of energy to point out its endless defects. We presume that it emanates from the Railway Department—which is not exactly the brightest jewel in the crown of the President of the Board of Trade. We suggest to Mr. John Burns that the Department of Labour Statistics might be able to make a better business of the next statement of railwaymen's wages which the Board obtains.

LONDON TRAFFIC

Report on the London Traffic Branch of the Board of Trade, 1913. Cd. 7190. 5s.

Conference on Arterial Road Communication in Greater London, held at Caxton Hall on November 25th, 1913. H.M. Stationery Office. 3d.

The Select Committee on Motor Traffic which reported last year called attention to the difficulties arising from the confusion of traffic authorities in London—which include the Board of Trade, the Home Office, the Local Government Board, the Commissioner of Police, and a variety of municipal authorities. The volume both of trade and passenger traffic has increased enormously during the last ten years—passenger traffic in a radius of thirty miles round London having more than doubled during that period—and there is no prospect of any decrease. The recommendations of the report include the reduction in number of centre standards, the better regulation of the breaking up of the streets, stricter enforcement of the Hackney Carriages Act, 1842, with a view to prohibiting "loitering" for fares, the restriction of loading and unloading in the streets (in many Continental towns the delivery of merchandise to shops, etc., is prohibited during certain hours of the day), and the further regulation of stopping places and termini of omnibuses.

Even more important than any of these is the proposal for the provision of relief roads round London. "It is a matter of extreme urgency," the report states, "to deal with such portions of the scheme at once while land is still vacant, or buildings few and unimportant, and while the cost of such work, which at present would be moderate, is advancing each year by leaps and bounds. . . . The policy of leaving each generation to solve its own problems is unsound and unnatural, inasmuch as by the exercise of a little foresight the problem need never arise." The report presses this point, especially in regard to the Town Planning Schemes now under consideration in various outskirts of London. A large coloured map facing page 22 of the report shows the districts where such schemes are in progress, together with the stage at which each scheme has arrived. A key to the colour scheme, depressing to those who know the dilatoriness of municipal authorities, shows the eight stages through which the schemes must pass to obtain the final sanction of the L.G.B. The majority of the schemes fall either under heading (1) Question under consideration as to whether to prepare a scheme, or (2) Notices issued by local authority of *intention* to apply for authority to prepare a scheme. Authority has then to be applied for and obtained, a scheme has to be drafted and submitted to the L.G.B.; a draft order for approving the schemes is then sent to the local authority, and the final approval of the L.G.B. is obtained. In June, 1913, not even Ruislip, by far the most advanced of the town-planning schemes, had passed these two final stages.

This means, however, that it is not too late to embody "relief roads" in the schemes. Of the difficulties involved the report is eloquent. "Even in the case of the more enterprising districts," we are told, "there might still be time to modify the plans so as to admit of a proposed new main road . . . if some guarantee could be given that the road would be constructed throughout in course of time. This uncertainty, coupled with the financial difficulty which confronts all districts in providing their town-planning scheme for an isolated portion of a through main road, entails risks that they are unwilling to face, however desirous they may be that such a road should pass through their district, and however anxious to do their share towards it." The matter was laid before the Prime Minister in July, 1913, but "he reserved the matter for further consideration." The excellent maps and diagrams add greatly to the value of this report.

At the Arterial Roads Conference, presided over by Mr. John Burns, representatives were present from all the Government Departments concerned with the provision and control of roads, the Local Authorities of Greater London, and a considerable number of professional and voluntary associations. Mr. John Burns pointed out that "in the past ten years £104,000,000 have been spent on highways in England and Wales; £26,000,000, or one-fourth of the total, have been spent by County Councils, and the yearly average works out at £10,400,000 for England and Wales and £2,600,000 for the County Councils. London in ten years has spent £18,000,000 on its highways—£1,800,000 a year—and the expenditure in 1913–14 may be over £2,000,000." He further stated that "we are getting a great deal of traffic on the roads which, if some prescience had been shown in the organisation and making of the railways fifty or sixty years ago—prescience which we hope this Conference will exercise as regards the next fifty or sixty years with regard to highways—would have been able to have been carried not on our roads at all, but in a

quieter, better, and cheaper way on many of our railways. . . . Outer London must be saved from the future cost of heavy charges for widening, similar to those which London itself now pays because fifty years ago there was not a conference like this in the Guildhall or at the Board of Works at Spring Gardens." Both Mr. John Burns and Sir George Gibb commended the example of the action of Birmingham under the Town Planning Act to the London authorities. "Birmingham," said Sir George Gibb, "came to us (*i.e.*, the Road Board) and said 'We have all our town plans through the Local Government Board, and here is a particular road to which we want a contribution.' Our reply was 'Yes, that is a definite scheme and a good scheme,' and as the City of Birmingham said that they would do all the road crust improvement work that is necessary, and they are doing it, we said 'Very well; you shall have £20,000 as a contribution to this town-planning scheme.'" But can one hope to secure the statesmanlike prescience commended by Mr. Burns and Sir George Gibb out of a chaos of six county councils, nearly forty metropolitan and suburban borough councils, sixty urban and ten rural district councils—or, in other words, considerably over a hundred road authorities, all operating in what should be the area of a Greater London authority?

THE CENSUS OF THE INFIRM

Census of England and Wales, 1911. Vol. XI. — Infirmities. Persons returned as Totally Blind, Totally Deaf, Deaf and Dumb, Lunatic, Imbecile and Feeble-minded. Cd. 7020. 9d.

Ever since 1851 an attempt has been made at each census to enumerate the deaf and dumb and the blind, and since 1871 special questions have been asked with the object of ascertaining the number of lunatics and idiots. The Census Commissioners of 1881 wrote: "We cannot, however, but express our decided opinion that statements made by persons as to the deficiencies, mental or bodily, of their children or other relatives are not worth the cost and labour of collection and tabulation." This view has been confirmed subsequently by several other authorities. The same impression prevails in foreign countries, and where questions with regard to infirmities are included in Census enquiries the object is sometimes merely to secure a basis for a subsequent technical investigation by experts. The questions were varied slightly in 1911, but the results seem to be no better. The number returned as totally blind was 12,667 males (4,388 occupied, 5,537 married), and 12,595 females (1,138 occupied, 2,899 married). The males returned as deaf were 10,640, and the females 16,009. The deaf-and-dumb and dumb included 8,167 males and 6,955 females. The insane were returned as 76,243 males and 85,750 females. There is a preponderance of lunatics (as against idiots and imbeciles) amongst those returned as insane aged over 25; but up to the age of 20 few of the insane are so described.

LIST OF PARLIAMENTARY AND OTHER OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

(RECEIVED SINCE JANUARY 20, 1914.)

Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries.

BOARD OF AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES: Annual Report of the Horticulture Branch. Proceedings under the Destructive Insects and Pests Acts, 1877 and 1907, and the Board of Agriculture Act, 1889 (Section 2, Sub-Section 3), for the year 1912-13. Cd. 7232. 2s. 2d. (To be reviewed.)

SECOND INTERIM REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY THE BOARD OF AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES TO ENQUIRE INTO SWINE FEVER; WITH MINUTES OF EVIDENCE AND APPENDIX. Part III. Cd. 7247. 4½d. (To be reviewed.)

WOODS, FORESTS, AND LAND REVENUES: Abstract Accounts of the Commissioners of His Majesty's Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues, for the year ended the 31st March, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General theron. H. of C. 9. 2d.

[£313,408 was obtained from sales of estates, etc., and £100,675 was spent in buying estates. The balance to credit of capital account at the end of the year was £102,500 cash and £867,812 securities. The total income was £705,205, of which £596,053 was Crown rents and £39,298 on account of Windsor Parks and Woods and Royal Forests and Woodlands. The income from rents and royalties of mines was £78,629, one-half of which is credited to capital account and one-half to income account. The expenditure on Windsor Parks, Royal Forests, etc., £20,589, was paid for repairs of Crown estates and maintenance of woods—about $\frac{1}{10}$ of the rental—and £20,297 in repayment of advances for permanent improvements—another thirtieth.]

Census and Population.

ALIENS ACT, 1905: Return of the Alien Passenger Traffic to and from the United Kingdom during the three months ending December 31st, 1913; together with the number of Expulsion Orders made during that period requiring Aliens to leave the United Kingdom. Cd. 7242. 1½d.

[According to these statistics, there were 22,782 alien immigrants in 1913 as against 19,820 in 1912 (excluding cabin and certain second-class passengers). The number finally refused leave to land in 1913 was 1,320 as against 1,149 in 1912. Of the refusals in 1913, 1,072 were due to "want of means, etc.," and 248 were based on medical grounds.]

PASSENGER MOVEMENT FROM AND TO THE UNITED KINGDOM: Return showing for January in 1913 and 1914: The Numbers of th Passengers that left the United Kingdom, and the Numbers that arrived in the United Kingdom. Cd. 7285. ½d.

Civil Services, Army and Navy.

INDEX AND DIGEST OF EVIDENCE TO THE REPORT FROM THE SELECT COMMITTEE ON POST OFFICE SERVANTS. (Wages and Conditions of Employment.) H. of C. 268—Ind.

CIVIL SERVICES (SUPPLEMENTARY ESTIMATE, 1913-14): Estimate of a further Sum required to be voted for the Service of the Year ending March 31st, 1914. Ninety-six Thousand and Fifty-three Pounds. H. of C. 107. 2d.

[These Supplementary Estimates cover 14 votes, but 4 of them are only token votes. The total amounts to £96,053. £8,400 is required for the Royal Irish Constabulary, the extra amount needed on account of subsistence allowances for members of the force stationed in Dublin during the Labour troubles being £22,800; against this, £5,430 was received for extra police charges beyond what was estimated, and £8,970 is to be met out of savings. £9,250 is required for Scotch Education, £25,000 for operations against the Mullah in Somaliland, and £10,358 for other colonial services. £19,905 is accounted for by loss on the Treasury Chest transactions for 1912-13 and £15,000 for superannuation allowances; details of the former amount are given in the Treasury Chest Account.]

ACCOUNTS SHOWING THE MONEYS ISSUED OUT OF THE CONSOLIDATED FUND, THE MONEYS BORROWED AND THE SECURITIES CREATED IN RESPECT THEREOF, AND THE EXPENDITURE UNDER THE PUBLIC OFFICES (WESTMINSTER) SITE ACT, 1896 (59 & 60 VICT. c. 23); THE PUBLIC OFFICES (WHITEHALL) SITE ACT, 1897 (60 & 61 VICT. c. 27); THE PUBLIC BUILDINGS EXPENSES ACT, 1903 (3 EDWD. 7, c. 41); THE FINANCE ACT, 1908 (8 EDWD. 7, c. 16, s. 9); AND THE PUBLIC OFFICES SITES (EXTENSION) ACT, 1908 (8 EDWD. 7, c. 112); TO THE 31ST MARCH, 1913, TOGETHER WITH THE REPORT OF THE COMPTROLLER AND AUDITOR-GENERAL THERON. H. of C. 2. 1d.

ACCOUNT SHOWING THE MONEY ISSUED FROM THE CONSOLIDATED FUND UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF THE PUBLIC OFFICES SITE (DUBLIN) ACT, 1903 (3 EDWD. 7, c. 16), AND THE EXPENDITURE, FOR THE PERIOD ENDED MARCH 31ST, 1913. H. of C. 95. ½d.

[By various Acts £5,890,000 was authorised to be expended in rehousing the Government Departments in London, of which £775,000 is still to be issued. £4,978,436 has been expended by the Office of Works—£1,229,148 on the Whitehall Site; £1,912,767 on the Westminster Site; £901,194 on the Science and Art Buildings; £350,382 on the Admiralty; £334,253 on the Post Office; £86,433 on the Patent Office; £150,000 on the British Museum, and £14,259 on superintendence. £1,795,072 of these amounts was spent in purchase of sites and buildings. Annuities to a total of £118,404 have been created to extinguish loans of £2,505,000. £217,081 has been spent in Dublin, £43,540 of that being for acquisition of property.]

LAND REGISTRY (NEW BUILDINGS) ACT, 1900: Account showing the Money issued out of the Consolidated Fund; the Money borrowed and the Securities created in respect thereof; and the Expenditure under the Land Registry (New Buildings) Act, 1900 (63 & 64 Vict. c. 19), for the period ended March 31st, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General theron. H. of C. 91. ½d.

ARMY: SUPPLEMENTARY ESTIMATE, 1913-14. H. of C. 110. ½d.

[This Estimate amounts to £296,000, or £196,000 after deducting £100,000 increase in appropriations in aid. Of the gross amount £216,000 is on account of aviation.]

STATEMENT SHOWING THE FINANCIAL POSITION OF TERRITORIAL FORCE COUNTY ASSOCIATIONS ON MARCH 31ST, 1913. Cd. 7251. 1½d.

[On March 31st, 1913, "after providing the required reserves amounting in all to £536,000, 70 Associations had surplus funds to a total of £199,000, while 22 had deficits to a total of £12,000, leaving a net surplus of £187,000. This shows a growth during the year of £10,000 in reserve funds and £74,000 in net surplus, or a total excess of income over expenditure amounting to £84,000." A detailed table shows the income, gain or loss, and details of income and expenditure.]

ARMY (ORDNANCE FACTORIES): Appropriation Account, 1912-13. H. of C. 5. 1½d.

[The expenditure of the Ordnance Factories in 1912-13 amounted to £2,999,691—*i.e.*, Salaries, £28,411; Wages and Police, £1,218,891; Materials and Stores, £1,437,161; Machinery, Plant, and Buildings, £234,675; Miscellaneous and Non-effective, £80,553. This discloses the interesting fact that for every £1 spent on salaries and wages £1 3s. was spent on materials—a useful relation to remember in connection with the engineering and explosives trades. £975,994 was received from Army Votes; £1,437,161 from Navy Votes; and £196,734 from India and the Colonies.]

ARMY: Annual Accounts of the Royal Army Clothing Factory for the year 1912-13. H. of C. 6. 1½d.

[After making adjustment for stocks of materials and unfinished garments at the beginning and end of the year, the expenditure

of the factory was £286,340, of which £201,061 (or 70·2 per cent.) represented materials, £73,787 (or 25·8 per cent.) wages, and £11,492 (or 4 per cent.) other charges. The productive output was valued at £274,800; £2,096 was received for the instruction of regimental tradesmen; £7,756 for cuttings sold; and £1,271 is accounted for by other receipts and credits. The capital value of leasehold buildings at the end of the year was £18,516, and of machinery £4,610. A detailed list is given of the number of different articles manufactured and their cost. Many interesting c mparisons can be made; for example, while the tunics for the infantry line rank and file cost 14s. 1½d. and 14s. 2½d. each, those for the privates of the Foot Guards cost 22s. 6¼d. each. Silver-grey flannel shirts cost 4s. 4d. In fact, careful scrutiny will afford some rough guide as to the relation between factory cost and retail price in the case of goods made by private manufacturers.]

Army: Statement of the Amount due by the Public to Depositors in Military Savings Banks on March 31st, 1912, and of the Receipts, Interest, and Disbursements on the said Military Savings Banks during the year next ensuing, ended on March 31st, 1913. H. of C. 87. ½d.

Account of Deposits in Naval Savings Banks, and the Payments thereof, and of Interest thereon; of all Investments under "The Naval Savings Banks Act, 1866," and the Application of the Interest or Dividends accruing in respect thereof; and of the Proceeds of any Sale of any Stocks, Annuities, or Securities, during the financial year 1912-13. H. of C. 74. ½d.

[£296,793 was received and £322,237 paid out on account of depositors' accounts in Naval Savings Banks (including interest in both cases). £270,715 was due to depositors at the end of the year, and the surplus of invested funds was £14,039. Receipts into and withdrawals from Military Savings Banks were respectively £2,598 and £5,191, and the total amount of the fund for these banks was £90,405.]

Education.

Viceregal Committee of Enquiry into Primary Education (Ireland), 1913. Final Report of the Committee. Cd. 7235. 5½d. Second Report. Cd. 7228. ½d. Appendix to Second Report. Cd. 7229. 4s. 8d. (See review, p. 4.)

Public Elementary Schools in England and Wales. Tabular Statement showing, for the area of each Local Education Authority for Elementary Education in England and Wales, the number of Departments of ordinary Public Elementary Schools with an average attendance not exceeding 100. Cd. 7214. 2½d. (See review, p. 11.)

Fifty-sixth Report, for the year 1912, of the Chief Inspector of Reformatory and Industrial Schools of Great Britain. Cd. 7196. 7d. (See review, p. 10.)

Sixth Annual Report of the Governing Body of the Imperial College of Science and Technology, South Kensington, for the year ending August 31st, 1913. Cd. 7243. 3½d.

[The College embraces departments for mathematics and mechanics, physics, chemistry, chemical technology, botany, zoology, geology, mining, metallurgy, civil and mechanical engineering, and electrical engineering. The detailed report gives a most favourable impression of the work of the various sections, especially in the higher branches, and it is pleasant to see that manufacturers co-operated in arranging visits to works. To keep pace with recent developments a new course has been started in "technology of oil" for oil engineers. There were 897 students, of whom 789 were full-time and 108 part-time; of the total, 171 were doing post-diploma work. The income of the College was £83,937 and the expenditure £79,984; £27,404 was provided by fees, £50,076 by grants from Parliament and the London County Council, and £6,412 by grants from the City and Guilds Institute and the University of London. Capital in hand is £188,005. Work has been much hampered by insufficiency of accommodation, but some important buildings were in an advanced stage at the date of the report.]

Irish Universities Act, 1908: Accounts of Receipts and Expenditure of Universities and Colleges, Ireland (including the Fee Fund Grant), for the year ended March 31st, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 60. 2½d.

[The receipts were: National University, £20,152; Queen's University of Belfast, £74,983; University College, Dublin, £61,279; University College, Cork, £29,031; University College, Galway, £17,550. The National and Queen's Universities each received £10,000 endowment charged on the Irish Church Funds. Parliamentary Grants were: Belfast, £18,000 and £27,341 advances for land and buildings; Dublin, £32,000; Cork, £20,000; Galway, £12,000.]

Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Act, 1877: Statute made by the University of Oxford on June 3rd, 1913, amending the existing Statute relating to the Visitatorial Board. H. of C. 61. ½d.

[Enables the Visitatorial Board, on the representation of the Curators of the Bodleian Library, to remove Bodley's Librarian from office on the ground of physical or mental infirmity.]

Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Act, 1877: Statute made by the University of Oxford on June 3rd, 1913, amending the existing Statutes of the University relating to the Rawlinsonian Professorship of Anglo-Saxon, and the Merton Professorship of English Language and Literature, respectively. H. of C. 62. ½d.

Statute made by the Governing Body of Lincoln College, Oxford, on June 10th, 1913, amending Statute cap. 2, sections 1, 9, 10, of the existing Statutes of the College. H. of C. 63. ½d.

[Section 10 of the amended Statute includes the following provision: "An Official Fellow, who marries without the consent of the Rector and Fellows, shall thereby vacate his Fellowship. But he may be permitted to marry with the consent of the Rector and Fellows, granted by not less than two-thirds of the votes given by secret ballot at a special meeting in Full Term summoned with at least thirty days' notice." We seem to see the ghosts of mediæval Founders joining hands with the Eugenists.]

Statute made by the Governing Body of All Souls' College, on May 13th, 1913 (and sealed on June 3rd, 1913), amending Statute IV. (1), (2) and (4) of the existing Statutes of the College. H. of C. 64. ½d.

University of London Act, 1898: Amendment of Statutes Nos. 108, 111, and 112 of the Statutes of the University of London. H. of C. 65. ½d.

University of London Act, 1898: Amendment of Statute 30 of the Statutes for the Management of the University of London, University College. H. of C. 66. ½d.

Board of Education: Subject Lists of Books and Papers in the Board of Education Library. No. 1. School Hygiene and Physical Education. 2s. 6d. No. 2. Educational Buildings and Equipment. 1s. H.M. Stationery Office.

[These exceedingly well-arranged and well-indexed bibliographies will be a *sine qua non* for all students of the subjects with which they deal. No. 1 should be on the desk of every School Medical Officer, and No. 2 should be invaluable to the school architect. The Board of Education is to be congratulated on its enterprise in initiating this series, which rivals the methods of German scholarship in its thoroughness. We hope it will soon be extended.]

Imperial and Foreign Affairs.

Second Interim Report of the Royal Commission on the Natural Resources, Trade, and Legislation of Certain Portions of His Majesty's Dominions. Cd. 7210. 1s. Minutes of Evidence taken in London in November, 1913, and Papers laid before the Commission. Cd. 7173. 1s.

[This important Report will be reviewed next month. It deals largely with the evidence reviewed on p. 8.]

Statistical Abstract for the British Empire in each year from 1898 to 1912. Cd. 7241. 1s. 3d. (To be reviewed.)

Text of the Indemnity and Undesirables Special Deportation Bill of The Union of South Africa. Cd. 7213. ½d.

Greek Loan of 1832: Account of Moneys paid out of the Consolidated Fund for interest and Sinking Fund on that part of the Greek Loan which was guaranteed by this Country, and of the Amount repaid by the Greek Government on account of the same, up to December 31st, 1913. H. of C. 56. ½d.

Report for 1912 on the Federated Malay States. Cd. 7208. 10d. (To be reviewed.)

Malay States: Reports for 1912 on the States of Kedah and Perlis, Kelantan and Trengganu. Cd. 7209. 10d. (To be reviewed.)

Blackwater Fever in the Tropical African Dependencies: Reports for 1912. Cd. 7211. 3s. 1d. (To be reviewed.)

Report on the Prevention of Malaria in Cyprus: By Sir Ronald Ross, K.C.B., F.R.S., D.Ph., F.R.C.S., M.D., D.Sc., LL.D. Cd. 7174. 2½d. (To be reviewed.)

Soudan Government Guaranteed Loan: Copy of Treasury Minute, December 18th, 1913, guaranteeing the Payment of Interest on the First Instalment of the Loan. H. of C. 58. ½d.

Diplomatic and Consular Reports.

Annual Series: 5248, Morocco, 5d.; 5249, French Congo, 3d.; 5250, Norway (supplementary), 2d.; 5251, Siam (Bangkok district), 3½d.; 5252, France (Dunkirk district), 2d.; 5253, Hawaii, 4½d.; 5254, Persia (Isfahan district), 4d.; 5255, Persia (Bushire district), 5d.; 5256, Algeria, 7d.; 5257, Persia (Shiraz), 3d. (To be reviewed.)

Colonial Reports.

Annual Series: 784, British Honduras, 2½d.; 785, Northern Nigeria, 5½d.; 786, Malta, 5½d.; 787, Uganda, 5d.; 788, Mauritius, 3½d.; 789, Straits Settlements, 5½d.; 790, Trinidad and Tobago, 6½d.; 791, East Africa Protectorate; 792, Grenada, 3d. (To be reviewed.)

Miscellaneous Series: 87, Ceylon. Reports on the Results of the Mineral Survey. Cd. 7175. 1½d.

Treaty Series: 1913, No. 20, Index to Treaty Series, 1913, Cd. 7150, ½d. 1914, No. 1, Exchange of Notes between the United Kingdom and the United States of America respecting the Rendition of Fugitive Criminals between the State of North Borneo and the Philippine Islands or Guam (Washington, September 1/23rd, 1913), Cd. 7149, ½d. No. 2, Parcel Post Agreement between the United Kingdom and France (Signed at Paris, November 22nd, 1913), Cd. 7152, 2½d.

India.

East India (Police): Correspondence relating to the Procedure in regard to Confessions of Persons accused of Criminal Offences. Cd. 7234. 6d.

Irish Land. (See review, p. 8.)

RETURN OF ADVANCES MADE UNDER THE IRISH LAND PURCHASE ACTS DURING THE MONTH OF MARCH, 1913. Cd. 7162. 1s. 1d.

IRISH LAND COMMISSION: Return of Proceedings under "The Land Law Acts," "The Labourers (Ireland) Acts," and "The Land Purchase Acts," during the month of August, 1913: Cd. 7191, 2d. September, 1913: Cd. 7203, 2d. October, 1913: Cd. 7230, 2½d. November, 1913: Cd. 7240, 2½d.

RETURN OF ADVANCES MADE UNDER THE IRISH LAND PURCHASE ACTS DURING THE MONTH OF APRIL, 1913. Cd. 7222. 4½d.

IRISH LAND COMMISSION: Index to Estates Comprised in Return of Advances made under the Irish Land Acts, 1903-1909, during the year ended December 31st, 1912. Cd. 7223. 1½d.

RETURN PREPARED PURSUANT TO SECTION 3 OF THE EVICTED TENANTS (IRELAND) ACT, 1907, giving particulars of all cases in which an evicted tenant (or a person nominated by the Estates Commissioners to be the personal representative of a deceased evicted tenant) has been, with the assistance of the Estates Commissioners, reinstated, either by the landlord or by the Estates Commissioners, as a purchaser of his or his predecessor's former holding or part thereof, or provided with a new parcel of land under the Land Purchase Acts, during the quarter ended September 30th, 1913. Cd. 7226. ½d.

RETURN OF THE NUMBER OF EVICTION NOTICES FILED IN THE HIGH COURT OF JUSTICE AND COUNTY COURTS IN IRELAND UNDER SECTION 7 OF THE LAND LAW (IRELAND) ACT, 1887, DURING THE QUARTER ENDING DECEMBER 31ST, 1913. Cd. 7233. ½d.

IRISH LAND COMMISSION: Accounts for the Irish Land Commission for the year ended March 31st, 1913, and from August 22nd, 1881, to March 31, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 75. 2½d.

IRISH LAND PURCHASE FUND: Accounts of Receipts and Payments by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt in respect of the Capital and Income of the Irish Land Purchase Funds in the year ended March 31st, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 77. 1½d.

CHURCH TEMPORALITIES (IRELAND): Accounts of the Irish Land Commission, in respect of Church Temporalities in Ireland, from April 1st, 1912, and from July 26th, 1869 (the date of the Irish Church Act), to March 31st, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 78. 2d. (See review, p. 8.)

Labour and Industrial Regulation.

STANDARD TIME RATES OF WAGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AT OCTOBER 1ST, 1913. Cd. 7194. 6½d. (See review, p. 3.)

FIRST REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE ON SPONTANEOUS COMBUSTION OF COAL IN MINES. Cd. 7218. 1½d.

REPORTS OF THE CHIEF REGISTRAR OF FRIENDLY SOCIETIES FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31ST, 1912. Part A: General Report. H. of C. 89. 2s. (To be reviewed.)

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS: Summary of Accidents and Casualties during the three months ending September 30th, 1913; together with Reports to the Board of Trade by the Inspecting Officers, Assistant Inspecting Officers, and Sub-Inspecting Officers of the Railway Department, upon Certain Accidents which were enquired into. Cd. 7188. 1s. 1d.

Local Government.

FORTY-SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD, 1912-13: Supplement containing the Report of the Medical Officer for 1912-13. Cd. 7181. 4s. (See review, p. 9.)

REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD FOR IRELAND TO ENQUIRE INTO THE HOUSING CONDITIONS OF THE WORKING CLASSES IN THE CITY OF DUBLIN. Cd. 7273. 1s. 1d. (See review, p. 5.)

RETURN TO AN ORDER OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS, DATED JULY 9TH, 1913, SHOWING: (*a*) The Limitations placed by various Acts of Parliament upon the Borrowing Powers of each class of Local Authority in the United Kingdom, specifying each Local Authority separately; and (*b*) The cases in which by subsequent Public Acts of Parliament provision has been made whereby money for various purposes is to be excluded from being reckoned as part of the Debt of a Local Authority for the purposes of the limitation on borrowing previously imposed by Parliament. H. of L. 179. 1d.

PAUPERISM (ENGLAND AND WALES): Return (in part) to an Order of the Honourable the House of Commons, dated May 6th, 1913, for Copy of Statement of the number of Paupers relieved on January 1st, 1913, and similar Statement for July 1st, 1913 (in continuation of Parliamentary Paper No. 496 of Session 1912–13). H. of C. 233. 3½d.

RETURN TO AN ORDER OF THE HONOURABLE THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, DATED JANUARY 15TH, 1913, for Return "of the number of Deaths in England and Wales in the year 1912 upon which a Coroner's Jury has returned a verdict of Death from Starvation or Death accelerated by Privation, together with any observations furnished to the Local Government Board by Boards of Guardians with reference to cases included in the Return (in continuation of Parliamentary Paper No. 352 of Session 1912)." H. of C. 216. 3½d.

PAUPERISM (ENGLAND AND WALES): Statement for December, 1913. H. of C. 71–IX. 1½d.

National Health Insurance.

REPORT OF AN INTER-DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO CONSIDER PROPOSALS FOR FACILITATING THE PAYMENT THROUGH THE POST OF BENEFITS UNDER THE NATIONAL INSURANCE ACT. Cd. 7245. 1½d.

[It is impossible for the Approved Societies to pay all their benefits in cash by an agent or branch steward, though this is the most desirable course. If they pay by means of ordinary postal orders, there is difficulty in obtaining receipts. In Ireland, by arrangements with the banks, payment is made by means of cheques, but this compels the insured person to be beholden to a publican or shopkeeper for cashing the cheque. The post office has agreed to provide a special order form for use by Approved Societies in Great Britain. This will be cashed at post offices, and then returned to the Societies by the Post Office, thus constituting a receipt.]

ORDERS UNDER THE NATIONAL INSURANCE ACTS. Joint Committee: Special Orders Acceleration Continuance Order, December 31st, 1913. Cd. 7215. ½d. Outstanding Reserve Values Order, January 23rd, 1914. Cd. 7244. ½d.

English Commissioners: Expiring Orders Continuance Order, December 31st, 1913. Cd. 7216. ½d. Preliminary Expenses Order, January 19th, 1914. Cd. 7259. ½d.

Welsh Commissioners: Expiring Orders Continuance Order December 31st, 1913. Cd. 7225. ½d.

Scottish Commissioners: Continuance Order, December 31st, 1913. Cd. 7220. ½d. Deposit Contributors Benefits Order, January 5th, 1914. Cd. 7224. ½d.

Irish Commissioners: Employment under Local and Public Authorities Order, December 30th, 1913. Cd. 7207. ½d.

Police, Law, and Crime.

REPORT OF THE DUBLIN DISTURBANCES COMMISSION. Cd. 7269. 2½d. (See review, p. 7.)

Taxation and Finance.

TREASURY CHEST FUND: An Account showing all the Sums which have been paid out of the same, between April 1st, 1912, and March 31st, 1913, and of the Liabilities and Assets on the latter day; with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 90. 1½d.

[This account is not by any means self-explanatory. The total payments in respect of services abroad was £9,488,681, of which £4,262,185 was on account of payments in London for Treasury Chest Bills and bank and other advances to local Treasury Chests in South Africa, Malta, Gibraltar, Egypt, etc., and £4,775,146 for Army and Navy services. £120,000 was advanced on loan to the Persian Government, making a total of £170,000. The capital amount of the Treasury Chest Fund is £700,000, and other liabilities at the end of the year amounted to £119,602; against these sums were cash, £615,723, and advances due from Parliament, £183,975. The loss of £19,905 in 1912–13 was mainly due to discounts on bills and telegraphic transfers.]

LOCAL LOANS FUND: Accounts of Receipts and Payments by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, in respect of the Capital and Income of the Local Loans Fund, for the year ended March 31st, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 76. 3d.

[Local Loans stock outstanding is, at par, £72,558,813. There is due from the Treasury £481,635 for West Indies loans; from the Public Works Commissioners, £54,620,309 for loans to local authorities, secured on rates and property; £9,495,323 from the Commissioners of Public Works, Ireland; and £7,727,233 from the Irish Land Commissioners in connection with land purchase. The total sum advanced for public loans has now amounted to £208,548,929, of which £123,203,303 has been repaid and £12,486,458 remitted. Borrowers have paid interest amounting to £71,477,785.]

ABSTRACT ACCOUNT, 1912–1913: Showing the Issues made from the Consolidated Fund of the United Kingdom, in the Financial Year ended March 31st, 1913, for the Interest and Management of the Debt, for the Civil List, and for all other Issues in the Financial Year for Services charged directly on the said Fund, together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 59. 1d.

[£18,378,408 was paid for interest on debt, and £36,060,900 for repayment of Treasury Bills and Bonds.]

ABSTRACT ACCOUNT OF THE RECEIPTS INTO AND ISSUES OUT OF THE DEVELOPMENT FUND IN THE YEAR ENDED MARCH 31ST, 1913, TOGETHER WITH THE REPORT OF THE COMPTROLLER AND AUDITOR-GENERAL THEREON. H. of C. 54. 1d.

[In 1912–13 £96,316 was advanced by grant to the three Departments of Agriculture, and £17,130 to universities and other public bodies; £13,109 and £9,500 were similarly advanced by loan to the same bodies; administrative expenses were £8,242; and there was left a balance in hand of £279,502. The income consisted of £1,500,000 from the Old Sinking Fund, 1910-11, and £61,326 from interest and profits on investments. Investments during the year increased from £591,795 to £2,454,820, the latter amount being the cost of £2,500,000 of Treasury Bills, £6,900,000 of which were purchased during the year. Loans outstanding amount to £22,609—*i.e.*, £4,109 for afforestation, £9,000 for fishing vessels, and £9,500 for improvement of harbours and navigation. There were also unexpended balances in hand on account of

advances to the Departments of Agriculture (£10,301), and to County Committees for the purchase of brood mares (£10,505).

Trade, Commerce, and Navigation.

Memorandum and Statistical Tables showing the Production and Consumption of Iron Ore and Pig Iron, and the Production of Steel, in the United Kingdom and the principal foreign countries in recent years, and the Imports and Exports of certain classes of Iron and Steel Manufactures (in continuation of Parliamentary Paper No. 402 of Session 1912–13). Return to Order dated August 11th, 1913. H. of C. 284. 7d. (To be reviewed.)

Mines and Quarries: General Report with Statistics for 1911, by the Chief Inspector of Mines. Part IV. Colonial and Foreign Statistics. Statistics relating to Persons Employed, Output, and Accidents at Mines and Quarries in the British Colonies and in Foreign Countries. Cd. 7217. 1s. 8d. (To be reviewed.)

Accounts relating to the Trade and Commerce of certain Foreign Countries and British Possessions, including Figures received up to December 31st, 1913. H. of C. 12–X. 5d.

Foreign Trade and Commerce: Accounts relating to the Trade and Commerce of certain Foreign Countries and British Possessions, including figures received up to January 31st, 1914. 5d.

Accounts relating to Trade and Navigation of the United Kingdom for each month during the year 1914. January, 1914. 11d.

Text of the Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea. Cd. 7246. 1s. 6d.

Transport and Traffic.

West Highland Railway: Twelfth Annual Report by the Board of Trade as to the condition and working of the Banavie to Mallaig Railway, the Rates and Charges for Traffic, and the Receipts and Expenditure of any Company in working the Railway, for the year 1912–13. H. of C. 69. 1½d.

Report by the Board of Trade notifying the making of an Order requiring the Hastings Tramways Company to cease to use the Dolter Surface Contact System of Electric Traction on the Front Line at Hastings. H. of C. 80. ½d.

Conference on Arterial Road Communication in Greater London, held at Caxton Hall on November 25th, 1913, the Rt. Hon. John Burns, M.P., in the Chair. H.M. Stationery Office. 3d. (See review, p. 12.)

Miscellaneous.

Report of the Inspector of Ancient Monuments for the year ending March 31st, 1913. Cd. 7258. 1d. (To be reviewed.)

Endowed Charities (County of Devon) Return: (1) General Charities (including Quaker Charities), (2) Parishes having no Endowed Charities, (3) County Tabular Summary. H. of C. 236. 1s. 2d.

[The charities of Devon have a gross income of £70,313. Of this £19,585 is applied to educational purposes, £205 to apprenticing, £14,467 to Church purposes, £3,006 to the purposes of Nonconformist bodies, £6,469 to almshouses, £6,969 to medical relief and nursing, while £8,688 is distributed to the poor in money and £5,604 in kind. The tabular summary would have been improved if the population figures of each parish had been given.]

Historical Manuscripts Commission: Report on Manuscripts in Various Collections. Vol. VII. The Bishop of London; St. George's Chapel, Windsor; Diocese of Gloucester; Corporations of Beccles, Dunwich, Southwold and Thetford; Duke of Norfolk; Earl of Essex; Sir Hervey Bruce, Col. Frewen, H. C. Staunton, Esq., and F. Merttens, Esq. Cd. 6722. 2s. 4d. (To be reviewed.)

Royal Parks: Return "in respect of each Royal Park and Pleasure Ground open to the Public." H. of C. 81. 1½d.

[Gives the total area, area from which public is excluded, and rental or receipts from excluded area. These receipts are £7,950, of which £5,216 is in respect of areas in Regent's Park, and they include £376 for sale of deer, venison, skins, and horns.]

Report of the Proceedings of the Inspection Committee of Trustee Savings Banks for the year ended November 20th, 1913, with Appendices. H. of C. 57. 3d.

[On November 20th, 1912, there were 1,870,510 depositors in trustee savings banks, with cash deposits of £67,118,022 and stock deposits of £2,741,815, representing an increase of £2,007,720 in cash and stock since 1911. The funds of the Belfast Savings Bank are reported as £1,007,226. There were seven amalgamations and one closure, and seven new branch banks were formed. All the 223 chief and 138 branch banks were visited at least once, and 146 a second time in the year, and the reports of the inspectors were "in the main satisfactory." Two cases of embezzlement were found. The expenditure of all the Savings Banks was £160,279, or for management expenses 5s. 10d. per cent. of the funds. A list of the banks is given; their hours of business vary from 1 to 49 per week.]

Account of the Receipts and Expenditure of the Commissioners of the Royal Hospital, Chelsea, in the year ended March 31st, 1913; together with the Report of the Comptroller and Auditor-General thereon. H. of C. 8. 1d.

Standing Orders of the House of Lords relative to the bringing in and proceeding in Private Bills, etc. H. of L. 203 of 1913. 1s.

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